

Aus dem Forstbotanischen Institut der Universität Freiburg i. Br.
**ÜBER DAS MITOSEVERHALTEN IN DEN WURZELSPITZEN
 VON VICIA FABA.**

I. DIE GESAMTVARIABILITÄT DER MITOSEHÄUFIGKEIT.

Von

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Mit 3 Textabbildungen.

(Eingegangen am 10. Mai/10. Juli 1952.)

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A. Einleitung.

Die bisherigen Untersuchungen über das Verhalten der Mitosehäufigkeit im Wurzelmeristem von *Vicia faba* zeigten, daß sich bei gleichzeitiger Fixierung verschiedene Wurzelspitzen weitgehend gleichartig verhalten. Die Mitosehäufigkeit schwankt nur gering und im Rahmen der zufälligen Streuung, so daß dieses Objekt sich für Versuche über die Beeinflussung des Teilungswachstums als besonders geeignet erwies (BRAUER 1949a/b). Die weiteren Untersuchungen (BRAUER 1950a—c; FINK 1949) ergaben aber, daß für *Vicia faba* nicht eine bestimmte Mitosehäufigkeit als „normal“ angesehen werden kann, sondern daß sich von den jahreszeitlichen Schwankungen abgesehen die einzelnen Fixierungen unbehandelter Pflanzen von verschiedenen Tageszeiten oder Tagen gesichert unterschiedlich verhalten. In der statistischen Auswertung eines großen Materials von Kontrollfixierungen äußert sich dies in der gegenüber der Binnenklassenvarianz größeren Zwischenklassenvarianz, während bei echter konstanter Mitosehäufigkeit und nur zufallsbedingten Abweichungen beide Werte

innerhalb der Fehlergrenzen gleich sein müßten. Durch die Zusammenfassung verschiedener Fixierungen wird also eine zusätzliche Variationsursache in das Material hineingetragen. Hieraus ergibt sich die Folgerung, daß auch bei Konstanzhaltung der bisher untersuchten Faktoren (Kulturbedingungen, Temperatur, Nährstoffversorgung) die Einwirkung weiterer, nicht zufälliger Einflüsse, die eine vergrößerte Variabilität der Mitosehäufigkeit hervorrufen, angenommen werden muß. Für diese zunächst unbekannten Einflüsse können sowohl endogene wie exogene Ursachen vorliegen. Die Kenntnis dieser Faktoren ist aber sehr wichtig für die weitere Auswertung von Versuchen über die Mitosehäufigkeit und vor allem für einen Vergleich von nicht gleichzeitig durchgeführten Versuchen. Die vorliegenden Untersuchungen sollen dazu beitragen über die hierdurch aufgeworfenen Fragen Klarheit zu gewinnen.

Sie werden an ein und demselben Versuchsmaterial in 3 Teilarbeiten durchgeführt. Hierbei wird so vorgegangen werden, daß in einem sehr großen Versuchsmaterial die Variabilität der Mitosehäufigkeit einer eingehenden statistischen Analyse unterzogen wird. Der 1. Teil, der hier vorliegt, befaßt sich mit der Klärung der inneren Struktur dieser statistischen Masse. In den beiden folgenden Arbeiten werden darauf aufbauend die Auswirkungen der endogenen bzw. exogenen Faktoren, von denen ein Einfluß auf die Kernteilungen vermutet wird, in Betracht gezogen und der Grad ihrer Wirksamkeit geprüft werden.

Vom statistischen Standpunkt aus gesehen hätte für die in diesem 1. Teil behandelten Punkte das Versuchsmaterial von wesentlich geringerem Umfang sein können, um mit nahezu der gleichen Sicherung zu den angestrebten Aussagen zu gelangen. Da aber für die Zusammenhänge, die in den beiden folgenden Untersuchungen diskutiert werden sollen, Beobachtungsreihen über längere Zeiträume hin notwendig waren, das Material also demgemäß im vorliegenden Umfang gewonnen werden mußte, schien es ratsam, auch für diesen 1. Teil das gesamte Versuchsmaterial in die Auswertung einzubeziehen, um eine Selektion von vornherein auszuschalten und den Schlußfolgerungen eine möglichst breite Grundlage zu geben.

B. Versuchsanordnung.

Als Objekt dieser Untersuchungen diente *Vicia faba*, *Franck's Hohenloher Ackerbohne*, Population 4/10/5 (von Dr. FRANCK, Oberlimpurg bei Schwäbisch Hall). Nach 48stündigem Vorquellen (25 Samen je Petrischale \varnothing 9,5 cm) wurden die Bohnen zu 5 in 8,5 cm-Töpfen in mit KNORSCHER Nährlösung durchtränkten Sägespänen bei 20° C kultiviert. Der Versuch wurde vom 12. 7. bis 23. 8. 48 durchgeführt. Die Fixierzeiten waren stündlich von 4—23 Uhr. Ergänzungsweise wurde 3 Nächte außerdem von 24—3 Uhr fixiert. Die Kulturräume waren Glas-thermostaten mit selbsttätig regulierender Heizung, aber ohne eingebauter Kühlvorrichtung. Die Temperatur während der Nacht und an den meisten Tagen war dadurch auf 0,8° konstant. Das Entstehen von Übertemperaturen während der

heißen Sommertage verhinderte eine genau dosierte Eisenlage, die die entsprechende Verdunstungskälte erzeugte. Ein Ventilator regelte die gleichmäßige Temperaturverteilung. In der 1. Versuchswoche wurde die Temperatur durch einen Thermographen laufend registriert; danach wurde sie nur mehr alltätlich zu den Fixierzeiten abgelesen, da die Differenzen während der 7 Tage 1° nicht überschritten. Die weitesten Schwankungen während des gesamten Versuchs betrugen aber + 2° und wurden zu folgenden Zeiten gemessen: 22. 7. 4 Uhr 1°, 26. 7. 10—11 Uhr 1,9°, 31. 7. 10—11 Uhr 2°, 1. 8. 6 Uhr 1,7°, 4. 8. 10 Uhr 1,6° und 7—18 Uhr 2°, 11. 8. 4 Uhr 1,7° und 14 Uhr 2°, 16. 8. 10—11 Uhr 1,9°. Die Thermostaten standen an einem zur Vermeidung direkter Sonnenbestrahlung morgens schattierten Ostfenster im Dachgeschoß des Botanischen Instituts.

Durch tägliche Neuaussaat standen während der ganzen Versuchsdauer stets gleichalte Keimpflanzen im Alter von 5—6 Tagen zur Verfügung.

Die Testmethode bestand in der Ermittlung der Mitosehäufigkeit in den Wurzelspitzen in der wiederholt beschriebenen Weise (BRAUER 1949a/b, 1950, FINK 1949). Für jeden Studentest wurden Wurzelspitzen von 10 Hauptwurzeln entnommen. Die Bestimmung der Mitosehäufigkeit beruht für jede Fixierzeit wie üblich auf der Auszählung von 10mal 200 Zellen. Die in jeder Wurzelspitze ausgewerteten 200 Zellen wurden stets in 2 Gruppen zu je 100 Zellen ausgezählt. Fixiergemisch: 3 Teile Alkohol 80% und 1 Teil Eisessig zu Essigsäurekarmin im Mischungsverhältnis 2:1. Essigsäurekarmin-Quetschpräparate.

Optik: Seibert binokulares Stativ, $\frac{1}{12}$ Ölimmersion 100mal, Okulare 15 und 20mal.

C. Auswertung der Ergebnisse.

1. Auswertung der Einzelwerte der Wurzelspitzen.

Das gesamte Material der Einzelwerte umfaßt 8200 Wurzelspitzen, das sind 1640000 Zellen. Es wurde jeweils aus jeder Wurzelspitze die 1. Gruppe von 100 Zellen für die vorliegenden Untersuchungen verwendet. Ein derartig umfangreiches Material hat den Vorzug, daß eine hohe Verlässlichkeit der empirischen Werte und damit sämtlicher daraus gewonnener statistischer Kennzahlen besteht. Zur Zusammensetzung des Versuchsmaterials ist zu bemerken, daß es sich um eine Population aus 3 Linien handelt. In früheren Untersuchungen (BRAUER 1949a) wurde bereits nachgewiesen, daß sich diese Stämme in der Mitosehäufigkeit des Wurzelspitzenmeristems nicht unterscheiden, so daß durch diese Zusammensetzung keine zusätzliche Variabilität in das Material hineinkommt. Zur Bearbeitung wurden 2 Wege eingeschlagen: 1. Die Methode der Gesamtauswertung aller erhaltenen Zahlen und 2. eine sinngemäße Gliederung in Untergruppen und Wiederholungen und deren Vergleich untereinander. Auf Grund der gewählten Versuchsanordnung ist hierbei folgende Unterteilung die gegebene:

1. 2 Dreiwochenserien (1mal 4200; 1mal 4000 Wurzelspitzen).
2. 6 Siebentageserien (5mal 1400; 1mal 1200 Wurzelspitzen).
3. 41 Tageserien (41mal 200 Wurzelspitzen).
4. Zusammenfassung der jeweils zur selben Tagesstunde, aber an verschiedenen Versuchstagen, erhaltenen Mitosehäufigkeiten (20mal 410 Wurzelspitzen).

Auf diese Weise sollte außerdem die kürzeste Versuchsdauer ermittelt werden, während der über das Verhalten der Mitosehäufigkeit noch verlässliche Aussagen möglich sind.

Der kombinierten Methode von Gesamt- und Einzelauswertungen ist schon deshalb der Vorzug zu geben, da der erste Weg, wenn er das alleinige Auswertungsprinzip darstellt, eine gewisse Gefahr in sich birgt: Es fehlen dann jegliche Vergleichsmöglichkeiten, auf Grund dessen sogar die Bedeutung materialbedingter Eigenheiten nicht mehr erkannt werden kann. Dieser Hergang wird besonders in der Variationsstatistik veranschaulicht, sofern es sich um Verteilungen handelt. So wiesen von MISES (1941) und ANDERSON (1943) an einem sehr weit gefaßten Kollektiv, dessen Einzelkollektive der Poissonverteilung folgten, nach, daß es bei entsprechender Vielzahl der Werte wieder mit der normalen Verteilung, der Gaußverteilung, übereinstimmte. Diese obere Begrenzung aber liegt außerordentlich hoch und wird selbst in den vorliegenden Untersuchungen noch nicht erreicht.

a) Das Gesamtmaterial.

Für die Untersuchung des Gesamtmaterials ist es notwendig, dies zunächst mit Hilfe statistischer Kennzahlen zu beschreiben. In der Variationsstatistik gibt es verschiedene Mittelwerte, die zur Kennzeichnung eines gegebenen Materials dienen. Der gebräuchlichste Begriff ist das arithmetische Mittel a . Im vorliegenden Material beträgt $a = 9,15\%$ Mitosen. Der Maximalwert oder das Dichtemittel D wird als jener Wert definiert, der am häufigsten in der Verteilungskurve realisiert ist und als Gipfelpunkt ihre Zweiteilung markiert. Eine besondere Bedeutung kommt D daher in den asymmetrischen Verteilungen zu. D liegt in unserem Fall bei 8% Mitosen. Als 3. Mittelwert muß der Zentralwert oder Medianwert Z erwähnt werden, der das gesamte Material in 2 mengenmäßig gleichartige Teile teilt, Z liegt zwischen $8-9\%$ Mitosen. Die Mitosehäufigkeit schwankt in diesem Material von $3-18\%$ Mitosen je 100 Zellen einer Wurzelspitze, so daß eine Variationsbreite von 15% gegeben ist.

Die Streuung des Materials läßt sich auf 2 Arten berechnen, einmal aus den empirischen Werten als Streuung einer Verteilung σ_1 und zum anderen, da der Mittelwert in Anteilen der sich teilenden Zellen unter 100 ausgedrückt wird, als Streuung einer Prozentzahl σ_2 . Diese beiden Berechnungen ergeben $\sigma_1 = 1,87\%$ bzw. $\sigma_2 = 28,7\%$ und weichen damit erheblich voneinander ab. Der Wert, der aus der gesamten Verteilung gewonnen wurde, ist hierbei als derjenige anzusehen, der das vorliegende Material am besten beschreibt. Dieser Wert wird daher auch zur Berechnung der mittleren Fehler herangezogen, für die sich danach $m = 0,02$ und $m\bar{\sigma} = 0,014$ ergibt.

Das Material ist hier derart umfangreich, daß sich auch die Berechnung der weiteren statistischen Maßzahlen lohnt. Das Vorliegen einer Differenz $Z - a$, wobei $D < a$ ist, läßt bereits vermuten, daß eine deutliche, wenn auch nicht sehr große, linksseitige Schiefe der Verteilung gegeben ist. Dies drückt sich aus im Asymmetriekoeffizienten $\beta_3 = 0,0815$ oder dem vielfach gebräuchlichen relativen Maß der Asymmetrie nach PEARSON ($S = \frac{a-D}{\sigma}$) im Werte von 0,63. Der Wert für den Exzeß $E = 1,037$ zeigt außerdem eine Überhöhung der Kurve an.

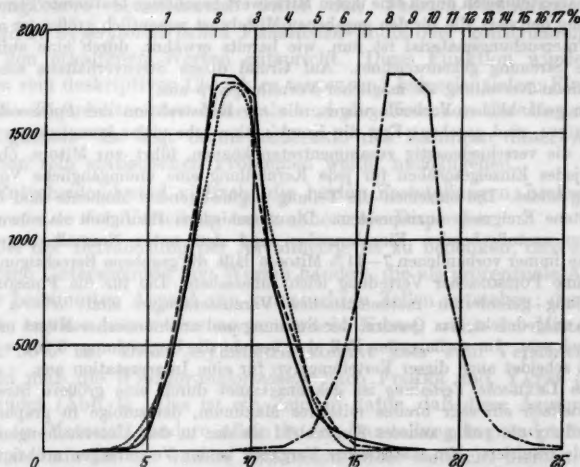


Abb. 1. *Vicia faba*. Häufigkeitsverteilung der Mitosen in den Wurzelspitzen. Beobachtungsintervall vom 12. 7. bis 21. 8. 48 (8200 Wurzelspitzen). Ordinate: Anzahl der Wurzelspitzen. Abszisse: Mitosenanzahl unter 100 Zellen einer Wurzelspitze. Bezeichnungen: — empirische Kurve, - - - - - Gaußkurve, - CHARLIERSCHE A-Funktion, - . - - - Verteilung nach Winkeltransformation.

Mit diesen Angaben ist die vorliegende Verteilung ausreichend beschrieben, und es fragt sich als nächstes, ob sie mit einer theoretischen Verteilung eine genügende Übereinstimmung zeigt. Dieser Vergleich ist von entscheidender Bedeutung, da die mathematischen Ursache der verschiedenen Verteilungen bekannt sind und der Nachweis der Übereinstimmung mit einer bekannten Kurve einen Rückschluß auf die biologischen Faktoren erlaubt, die diese Verteilung bestimmen. Für biologische Einsichten ist es zunächst wichtig zu erkennen, ob eine Häufigkeitsverteilung einer Gaußverteilung oder einer asymmetrischen Normalverteilung folgt. Der Vergleich der empirischen Kurve mit der Gaußkurve zeigt in diesen Untersuchungen eindeutige Unterschiede (Abb. 1). Die statistische Prüfung ergibt mit $P < 0,001$ ($\chi^2 = 3186,38$; $n = 12$) die gesicherte Differenz beider Kurven.

Nachdem diese Asymmetrie der Häufigkeitsverteilung erwiesen ist, soll an Hand der häufigsten asymmetrischen Verteilungstypen nach einer anderen Interpretation des empirischen Zahlenmaterials gesucht werden.

Die *Binomial- oder BERNOULLISCHE Verteilung* kann sowohl als symmetrische als auch asymmetrische Verteilung in Erscheinung treten; sie ist unter bestimmten Voraussetzungen mit der Gaußkurve oder der POISSONSCHE oder LEXISSCHEN Verteilung identisch, wohingegen die beiden letztgenannten nicht zwangsläufig zur Binomialverteilung entartet zu sein brauchen. In jedem Falle aber sind die Binomialverteilungen durch eine ihrem Mittelwert zugehörige bestimmte Streuung σ_B streng definiert, die für den gegebenen Mittelwert wesentlich größer ist als σ . Das Untersuchungsmaterial ist nun, wie bereits erwähnt, durch eine auffällig geringe Streuung gekennzeichnet. Auf Grund dieses Streuverhaltens scheidet die Binomialverteilung als möglicher Verteilungstyp aus.

Die gedanklichen Vorbedingungen, die zur Konstruktion der *Poisson-Kurve* berechtigen, sind gegeben: Erst die Kombination sehr vieler komplizierter Vorgänge, die verschiedenartig zusammentreten können, führt zur Mitose, obwohl nicht jedes Einzelgeschehen für jede Kernteilung eine unumgängliche Voraussetzung bildet. Die einzelnen die Teilung begünstigenden Momente sind daher als seltene Ereignisse anzusprechen. Die verschiedene Häufigkeit zwischen den seltenen anstoßgebenden Einzelursachen und den unter Normalbedingungen beinahe immer vorhandenen 7—11% Mitosen läßt die gegebene Berechtigung zur Annahme POISSONSCHE Verteilung leicht übersehen. Die für die POISSONSCHE Verteilung geforderten mathematischen Voraussetzungen sind: $\sigma^2 = a$ oder anders ausgedrückt, das Quadrat der Streuung und arithmetisches Mittel müssen identisch sein. Im vorliegenden Fall aber besteht die Ungleichung: $3,264 \neq 9,14$. Damit scheidet auch dieser Verteilungstyp für eine Interpretation aus.

Die *LEXISSCHE Verteilung* ist gekennzeichnet durch eine größere Streuung und vielfach ein sehr breites mittleres Maximum, demzufolge in graphischer Darstellung ein völlig anderes Kurvenbild als das in den Untersuchungen vorliegende resultiert. Ein statistischer Vergleich beider Verteilungen erübrigt sich damit von vornherein.

Bei dem Vergleich der erhaltenen Häufigkeitsverteilung mit der Gaußkurve wurde ohne nähere zahlenkritische Prüfung der Eindruck erweckt als handelte es sich nur um eine geringe Abweichung. Darum erschien die Anwendung der *CHARLIERSCHEN A-Funktion* zweckmäßig¹. Ein rechnerischer Vorteil ist hierbei insofern vorhanden als die Klasseneinteilung keine Veränderung erfährt, also die Häufigkeit jeder Mitoserate für sich ohne Zusammenziehung der Häufigkeiten der verschiedenen Kernteilungsprozentsätze angegeben wird. Derartige Berechnungen wurden vielfach in der Forstwirtschaft durchgeführt, wenn es sich in einem Bestand um die Darstellung der Stammzahlverteilung auf verschiedene Durchmesser handelt (CAJANUS 1914, LÖNNROTH 1930, PRODAN 1949). Auf anderen biologischen Gebieten ist die CHARLIERSCHE A-Funktion unseres Wissens bisher nicht zur statistischen Auswertung herangezogen worden. Die Berechnung erfolgt nach folgender Formel (CHARLIER 1918):

$$y = N (\varphi(x) + \beta_3 \varphi^{III}(x) + \beta_4 \varphi^{IV}(x) \dots)$$

N bezieht sich auf den Umfang des Kollektivs, $\varphi^{III}(x)$ und $\varphi(x)$ auf die 3. bzw. 4. Ableitung von der Normalfunktion $\varphi(x)$. Mit β_3 wird der Asymmetriekoeffizient

¹ Für Rat und Hilfe bei dieser Berechnung bin ich Herrn Dozent Dr. PRODAN zu besonderem Dank verpflichtet.

3. Grades und mit β_4 der Exzeßkoeffizient 4. Grades bezeichnet. Der Vergleich dieser Kurve mit der empirischen Kurve zeigt bei oberflächlicher Betrachtung einen weitgehend ähnlichen Verlauf, doch stimmen nach statistischer Prüfung mittels des χ^2 -Testes beide Kurven nicht überein ($P < 0,001$; $\chi^2 = 285,54$; $n = 12$).

Der statistische Vergleich zeigt also, daß die gefundene Häufigkeitsverteilung durch keine der bekannten theoretischen Verteilungen exakt zu beschreiben ist. Es ist durchaus denkbar, daß sich unter einem Aspekt, der an keinerlei statistische Forderungen hinsichtlich des Streuungsverhaltens und der Kurvengestalt gebunden ist, eine Verteilungskurve beispielsweise unter den *Pearson-Verteilungen* oder *sonstigen hypergeometrischen Funktionen* findet oder konstruieren läßt, die den erhaltenen Werten entspricht. Diese Funktion würde aber einen rein deskriptiven Charakter tragen und keinerlei tiefere Einblicke in die Eigenheiten des Materials und die Ursachen der Variabilität ermöglichen. Es liegt damit außerhalb des Rahmens dieser Arbeit, solchen rein statistischen Problemen weiter nachzugehen.

Entscheidend sind vielmehr die beiden Feststellungen: Linksseitige Asymmetrie der Verteilung und subnormale Dispersion.

Bei der Betrachtung der Asymmetrie ist zu bedenken, daß es sich um eine Untersuchung von Werten handelt, die als prozentuale Anteile einer bestimmten Anzahl von untersuchten Zellen entstehen; derartige Werte ergeben immer eine asymmetrische Kurve, wenn der Mittelwert nicht 50% ist. Diese Asymmetrie kommt aber zum Verschwinden, sobald man die *Winkeltransformation* nach FISHER und YATES (1949) anwendet (Abb. 1). Das ist ein Zeichen dafür, daß diese Asymmetrie nicht im Material, sondern allein in der Darstellung begründet ist; sie kann deshalb für die weitere Diskussion außer Betracht bleiben.

Die statistische Ursache der unternormalen Streuung ist schwieriger zu finden und wird im theoretischen Teil besprochen.

b) Die Zerlegung der Gesamtkurve in 2 zeitlich gleichwertige.

Die Halbierung des Versuchs in 2 Gruppen von je 3 Wochen Dauer führte fast zu demselben Ergebnis (Abb. 2). Die statistischen Kennwerte der Kernteilungsfrequenz für den 1. Zeitabschnitt vom 12. 7. bis 1. 8. 48 sind: $a \pm m = 9,28 \pm 0,04\%$; $D = 9\%$; $Z = 9-10\%$; $\sigma = 2,32 \pm 0,02$. Im 2. Teil des Versuchs vom 2.—21. 8. 48 wurden folgende Werte erhalten: $a \pm m = 9,05 \pm 0,02\%$; $D = 8\%$; $Z = 8-9\%$; $\sigma = 1,59 \pm 0,02$. Die sehr geringe Differenz zwischen den beiden Mittelwerten ist aber durch den sehr großen Umfang des Materials mit $c = 5,7$ und $P = 0,00000001$ gesichert; das gleiche gilt auch für die Differenz zwischen der Streuung in den beiden Zeiträumen. Dem höheren Mittelwert der Mitosehäufigkeit in der 1. Versuchshälfte entspricht eine vergrößerte Streuung. Diese Differenzen im Kurven-

verlauf werden deutlich sichtbar in der Verteilung der Extremwerte. Die sehr niedrigen Mitosehäufigkeiten kommen vorwiegend in dem 2. Zeitabschnitt vor, die extrem hohen Werte im 1. Teil. So wird deutlich, daß das Versuchsmaterial sich im 2. Dreiwochenabschnitt anders verhalten hat als im ersten. Es ist also eine innere Inhomogenität des Materials vorhanden, deren Ursachen aufgesucht werden müssen. Hierzu ist zunächst eine weitere Zerlegung in kleinere Zeiteinheiten notwendig, um zu sehen, bis in welche Zeiträume hinein sich die Differenzen erstrecken.

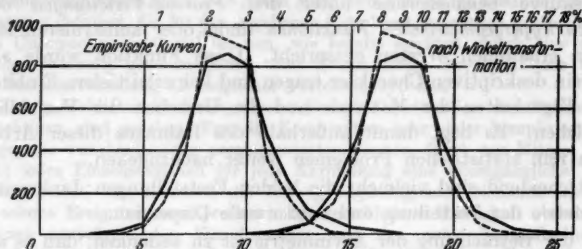


Abb. 2. *Vicia faba*. Häufigkeitsverteilung der Mitosen in den Wurzelspitzen. 2 Dreiwochenversuche: — vom 12. 7. bis 1. 8., --- vom 2.—21. 8. 48. Ordinate: Anzahl der Wurzelspitzen. Abszisse: Mitosenanzahl unter 100 Zellen einer Wurzelspitze.

c) Die Siebentagesserien.

Die Verteilung der Mitosehäufigkeit innerhalb der 6 Wochen zeigt das gewohnte Bild (Tabelle 1), schneller Anstieg der Mitosehäufigkeiten bis zum *D*-Wert und langsames Abfallen in den Häufigkeiten für die darüberliegenden Werte. Die linksseitige Asymmetrie der Verteilung ist in allen Versuchswochen ausgeprägt. Eine Überhöhung des Exzesses findet sich am auffälligsten bei den vom 2.—8. 8. und am geringsten in den vom 12.—18. 7. fixierten Wurzelspitzen. Die Schwankungen zwischen den Mittelwerten sind so groß, daß sie nicht als zufällig angesehen werden können (8,59—9,76), dasselbe gilt für die Streuung (1,51—2,32). Im allgemeinen ist die gleiche Erscheinung erkennbar wie bei den Dreiwochenserien, nämlich, daß einem Absinken des Mittelwertes eine Verringerung der Streuung entspricht. Diese Parallelität ist jedoch nicht vollständig wie der Vergleich der 2. und 4. Woche zeigt. Hier ist bei fast gleichem Mittelwert eine deutliche Differenz der Variationsbreite gesichert, wie die verschiedenen Werte für die Streuung ergeben. Da es sich bei der Klasseneinteilung um Prozentzahlen handelt, ist eine Verringerung der Streuung bei Verminderung des Mittelwertes zu erwarten, die sich aber bei den hier vorhandenen geringen Differenzen nicht derartig deutlich herausheben dürfte. Es müssen also für diese größere Einheitlichkeit des Verhaltens

Tabelle 2. *Vicia faba*. Häufigkeitsverteilung der Mitosen innerhalb der einzelnen Tage vom 12. 7. bis 21. 8. 48. von 4–23 Uhr (200 Werte je Tag).

Tag	Mitosenanzahl je 100 Zellen																$\sigma \pm m$
	unter 4	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
12. 7.	—	—	—	2	1	32	43	49	42	17	14	—	—	—	—	—	10 \pm 0,11
13. 7.	—	—	—	4	19	42	49	37	21	16	4	—	—	—	—	—	9,25 \pm 0,11
14. 7.	—	—	—	14	40	47	39	43	30	8	2	1	1	—	—	—	8,73 \pm 0,12
15. 7.	—	—	—	7	26	36	53	33	26	14	4	—	—	—	—	—	9,2 \pm 0,12
16. 7.	—	—	—	18	38	30	31	36	32	8	5	2	1	—	—	—	8,97 \pm 0,13
17. 7.	—	—	—	18	38	51	38	34	15	4	1	—	—	—	—	—	8,53 \pm 0,11
18. 7.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	42	50	45	25	14	9	1	13,54 \pm 0,11
19. 7.	—	13	38	34	35	26	23	16	9	5	1	—	—	—	—	—	7,19 \pm 0,14
20. 7.	—	—	—	9	29	57	38	46	1	8	1	—	—	—	—	—	8,84 \pm 0,11
21. 7.	—	—	—	27	23	47	41	28	18	8	5	—	2	1	—	—	8,77 \pm 0,14
22. 7.	—	—	—	6	24	45	48	48	18	9	1	1	—	—	—	—	9,06 \pm 0,1
23. 7.	—	—	—	7	17	39	56	49	21	9	2	—	—	—	—	—	9,16 \pm 0,1
24. 7.	—	2	9	33	42	38	39	26	9	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	7,92 \pm 0,12
25. 7.	—	—	—	5	16	44	50	46	28	9	2	—	—	—	—	—	9,23 \pm 0,1
26. 7.	—	—	—	7	15	29	42	58	28	14	4	4	1	—	—	—	9,57 \pm 0,12
27. 7.	—	—	—	10	20	57	45	36	23	8	1	—	—	—	—	—	8,16 \pm 0,01
28. 7.	—	—	—	5	14	41	67	39	27	8	4	3	—	—	—	—	9,27 \pm 0,1
29. 7.	—	—	—	5	15	45	34	53	26	13	6	3	—	—	—	—	9,47 \pm 0,12
30. 7.	—	—	1	7	20	42	57	40	19	10	2	2	—	—	—	—	9,09 \pm 0,11
31. 7.	—	—	—	2	10	27	33	36	25	31	8	14	7	5	2	—	10,74 \pm 0,17
1. 8.	—	—	—	3	14	58	36	49	22	13	2	2	—	—	—	—	9,31 \pm 0,11
2. 8.	—	—	—	3	13	50	59	44	19	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	9,16 \pm 0,1
3. 8.	—	—	—	4	17	67	40	41	24	13	—	—	—	—	—	—	9,1 \pm 0,1
4. 8.	—	—	5	12	11	53	38	34	33	17	13	3	—	—	—	—	9,57 \pm 0,14
5. 8.	—	—	2	8	22	54	48	42	14	9	1	—	1	—	—	—	8,86 \pm 0,1
6. 8.	—	—	—	3	21	55	58	50	10	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	8,87 \pm 0,08
7. 8.	—	—	—	3	14	54	48	52	18	9	2	—	—	—	—	—	9,16 \pm 0,1
8. 8.	—	—	2	5	17	52	50	47	17	9	1	—	—	—	—	—	9,01 \pm 0,1
9. 8.	—	—	—	1	18	59	66	39	11	3	2	1	—	—	—	—	8,93 \pm 0,08

Tabelle 3. *Vicia faba*. Häufigkeitsverteilung der Mitosen innerhalb der einzelnen Tagesstunden.
Versuchsdauer: 12. 7. bis 21. 8. 48. Auswertung von 8200 Wurzelspitzen.

Stunde	Mitosenanzahl je 100 Zellen																$\sigma \pm m$	$\sigma \pm m_{\sigma}$
	unber. 4	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18		
4.	—	4	8	14	50	93	87	78	35	21	13	4	2	1	—	—	9,04 ± 0,08	1,9 ± 0,07
5.	1	3	4	22	39	96	102	76	34	20	5	4	2	1	—	1	8,99 ± 0,09	1,85 ± 0,06
6.	2	2	10	19	55	103	75	74	42	18	1	6	2	1	—	—	8,84 ± 0,09	1,89 ± 0,06
7.	—	2	7	25	46	86	75	83	41	19	12	7	1	4	—	—	9,12 ± 0,1	2,02 ± 0,07
8.	1	1	7	23	48	106	87	76	40	9	7	4	1	—	2	—	8,82 ± 0,08	1,73 ± 0,06
9.	1	—	3	32	45	64	98	98	40	26	4	2	3	6	2	—	9,15 ± 0,1	1,94 ± 0,07
10.	—	—	2	14	32	72	85	105	46	24	13	5	4	4	5	—	9,59 ± 0,1	1,98 ± 0,07
11.	—	—	1	8	18	67	70	100	64	40	18	11	4	4	1	—	10,06 ± 0,1	2,03 ± 0,07
12.	—	—	—	3	30	68	78	112	51	37	18	8	3	1	1	—	9,81 ± 0,08	1,78 ± 0,06
13.	—	—	—	7	25	69	84	97	57	44	12	9	4	1	—	—	9,82 ± 0,09	1,81 ± 0,06
14.	1	1	—	16	35	82	91	92	54	20	10	3	5	1	—	—	9,33 ± 0,08	1,78 ± 0,06
15.	—	1	6	18	54	84	95	72	47	20	7	3	1	2	—	—	9,04 ± 0,09	1,81 ± 0,06
16.	—	—	2	18	45	96	78	95	40	20	11	3	1	—	1	—	9 ± 0,08	1,87 ± 0,05
17.	—	—	5	21	43	88	105	63	39	30	12	2	2	—	—	—	9,11 ± 0,09	1,8 ± 0,06
18.	—	—	4	23	44	91	99	83	33	21	8	3	4	—	—	—	9 ± 0,08	1,7 ± 0,06
19.	1	—	5	19	40	86	98	77	38	25	11	6	1	—	—	—	9,10 ± 0,09	1,87 ± 0,08
20.	—	—	6	17	51	103	97	82	27	9	5	7	1	—	—	—	8,86 ± 0,08	1,65 ± 0,03
21.	—	2	9	29	39	111	103	73	29	14	6	3	2	—	—	—	8,76 ± 0,08	1,75 ± 0,06
22.	1	—	5	26	54	113	103	68	21	10	6	2	1	—	—	—	8,65 ± 0,08	1,6 ± 0,05
23.	1	—	2	20	55	105	92	77	34	14	6	2	2	—	—	—	8,86 ± 0,08	1,65 ± 0,06

fassung die Untergruppen uneinheitlicher geworden sind als bei den vorherigen Unterteilungen bis in Tagesgruppen. Zwischen der Größe von σ zu verschiedenen Stunden ist kein gesicherter Unterschied vorhanden. Differenzen in den Mittelwerten, die nicht zufällig sein können, sind dagegen gegeben. Die nähere Betrachtung der Richtung dieser Differenzen zeigt nun folgendes: In den Vormittagsstunden von 9–14 Uhr liegt das Dichtemittel einheitlich bei 10% Mitosen mit entsprechend hohen arithmetischen Mittelwerten, deren Differenzen nicht gesichert sind. In den frühen Morgenstunden liegt das Niveau der Mitosehäufigkeiten im allgemeinen niedriger, aber mit der Neigung zu starken Schwankungen, während am Nachmittag und am Abend ein Absinken der Mitosehäufigkeit zu erkennen ist, mit geringen Schwankungen, auf ein Dichtemittel, das mit 8% wesentlich niedriger liegt als in den Mittagsstunden. Die Schwankungen der Mittelwerte sind also nicht unregelmäßig, sondern es ist eine deutliche Tendenz dabei zu erkennen.

2. Auswertung der Fixierungseinheiten.

a) Die Verteilung der Werte der Fixierungseinheiten (Mittelwerte).

Eine noch weitgehende Unterteilung des Materials zur Untersuchung der Verteilungen in den 820 Stundenfixierungen führt zu Werten vom arithmetischen Mittel μ und der Streuung σ , die durch den geringen Umfang der Stichproben von 10 Wurzelspitzen mit einem sehr großen mittleren Fehler behaftet sind. Für einen Vergleich in dieser Richtung muß daher eine andere statistische Methode angewendet werden. Für die Betrachtung der Mittelwerte steht dabei folgender Weg offen: Wenn aus einer sehr großen statistischen Masse viele Teilkollektive herausgegriffen werden, müssen deren Mittelwerte unabhängig von der in der gesamten Masse vorliegenden Verteilung, einer Normalverteilung folgen (GEBELEIN 1943). Für die Berechnung der Mittelwerte wurden die 10 zur gleichen Zeit für einen Studententest fixierten Wurzelspitzen verwendet, wobei hier jedoch, abweichend von den vorherigen Auswertungen, die 2 Gruppen von je 100 Zellen einer

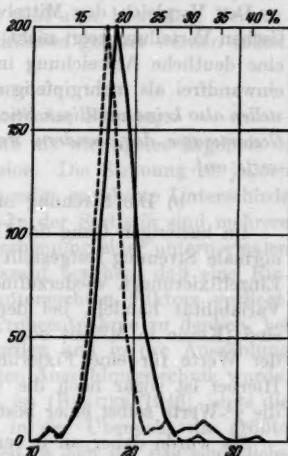


Abb. 3. *Vicia faba*. Häufigkeitsverteilung der 840 Mittelwerte der Mitosehäufigkeiten aus jeweils 2000 Zellen (10 Wurzelspitzen). Beobachtungsintervall vom 12. 7. bis 21. 8. 48. Ordinate: Anzahl der Mittelwerte. Abszisse: Mitosenmittelwerte aus 2000, bezogen auf 200 Zellen. Bezeichnung: — empirische Kurve, --- Verteilung nach Winkeltransformation.

Wurzelspitze zusammengefaßt wurden. Die Häufigkeitsverteilung der Mittelwerte verläuft im wesentlichen entsprechend derjenigen der Einzelwerte, sie ist ebenfalls stark überhöht mit entsprechend geringer Streuung und zeigt eine linksseitige Asymmetrie, die bei Durchführung der Winkeltransformation verschwindet (Abb. 3, $\alpha = 18,8\% \pm 0,09$; $\sigma = 2,56 \pm 0,06$).

Der Vergleich der Mittelwertskurve mit der zugehörigen theoretischen Verteilung zeigt nicht die geforderte Übereinstimmung, sondern eine deutliche Abweichung in den Extremwerten, so daß die Kurve einwandfrei als mehrgipfelig anzusprechen ist. *Die Einzelfixierungen stellen also keine zufälligen Stichproben aus einer einheitlichen statistischen Gesamtmasse dar, sondern weisen gesicherte Differenzen ihrer Mittelwerte auf.*

b) Die Streuung innerhalb der Fixierungseinheit.

Im bisherigen Gang der Untersuchungen wurde überall eine unternormale Streuung festgestellt, und es fragt sich, ob diese auch in den Einzelfixierungen wiederzufinden ist. Da es sich um eine alternative Variabilität handelt, bei der für jede Auszählung 2 Werte gegeben sind (Kerne in Mitosis oder nicht) ist die Prüfung der Homogenität der Werte für eine Fixierungszeit mit Hilfe des χ^2 -Testes möglich. Hierbei ist sogar noch die weitere Kontrolle dadurch gegeben, daß die χ^2 -Werte selbst einer bestimmten Verteilung folgen müssen.

Es wurde daher an 3 verschiedenen, willkürlich herausgegriffenen Versuchstagen das χ^2 als Maß für die Streuung für jede Stundenfixierung von 4–23 Uhr berechnet. Das Ergebnis ist in Tabelle 4 zusammengefaßt. Es zeigt so eindeutig das Vorhandensein unternormaler Streuung auch innerhalb jeder einzelnen Fixierung, daß sich für diese Fragestellung weitere Berechnungen der χ^2 -Werte erübrigen, denn während bei der untersuchten Anzahl von 60 Klein-

Tabelle 4. *Vicia faba*. Streuung der Mitosehäufigkeit innerhalb dreier Tage.

P	Tage			Summe	Erwartungswert für normale Streuung
	12. 7. 48	18. 7. 48	21. 7. 48		
>0,99	5	12	8	25	6
0,98	8	1	3	12	
0,95	3	5	3	11	
0,90	1	—	1	2	
0,80	1	1	2	4	36
0,70	2	—	—	2	
0,50	—	1	2	3	
0,30	—	—	1	1	
<0,30	—	—	—	0	18
Σ	20	20	20	60	60

kollektiven auf jede Dezimalklasse des P -Wertes nur 6 Fixierungen (10%) entfallen dürften, liegt der P -Wert in 50% der Fälle über 0,9 und sinkt nicht unter 0,3.

Der nächstliegende Rückschluß auf eine mögliche Selektion während des Auszählens der Mitosen scheidet insofern aus, als Teilungsbeginn und -abschluß scharf abgegrenzt zu erfassen sind (BRAUER 1949). Bei der Bestimmung der Mitosehäufigkeiten sind aber besondere Verhältnisse zu berücksichtigen, die in der Diskussion geklärt werden sollen.

D. Diskussion.

1. Die Ursachen der unternormalen Streuung.

Die Untersuchung der Streuung ergab als wichtigstes Ergebnis in allen Kurven eine unternormale Dispersion. Die Streuung ist jedoch nicht für alle Fälle gleich groß, sondern zeigt gesicherte Unterschiede zwischen den einzelnen Teilkollektiven. In der Statistik sind mehrere Gründe bekannt, die Ursache für die Erscheinung einer unternormalen Dispersion sein können und die alle darauf beruhen, daß eine Einschränkung der Zufallsverteilung des untersuchten Faktors vorliegt.

Zunächst ist an eine nichtzufällige Probeentnahme zu denken, bei der die Extreme herausselektioniert wurden und in der Auszählung nicht mehr auftreten. Bei der verwendeten Auszählungstechnik wurde, wie an anderer Stelle bereits dargelegt ist (BRAUER 1946), stets die Stelle des Präparates ausgewertet, die in der Übersicht die größte Mitosehäufigkeit aufwies. Hierbei handelt es sich um das eigentliche Meristem, einen Gewebekomplex, der etwa 500 Zellen umfaßt und in sich gleichartig ist. Dadurch wurde erreicht, daß nur echte Meristemzellen für die Auszählung zur Verwendung kamen, und keine Fehler durch die Einbeziehung von Zellen aus bereits in der Differenzierung begriffenen Teilen der Wurzel entstanden. In diesem Gewebekomplex wurden dann, wie üblich, alle jeweils im Gesichtsfeld des Mikroskops befindlichen Zellen bis zur angegebenen Höchstzahl ausgezählt, so daß innerhalb des Meristems eine zufällige Entnahme der Stichprobe gesichert ist. Vor allem das Fehlen der Varianten mit sehr hohen Mitosehäufigkeiten ist bei dieser Auswertung nicht durch einen Selektionsvorgang bei der Auszählung zu erklären. Damit ist gesichert, daß die nichtzufällige Verteilung der Mitosehäufigkeiten im Material begründet liegt und nicht von außen durch die Auswertungsmethode hineingetragen wurde. Zur Erklärung der feststehenden Tatsache lassen sich also keine technischen Gründe angeben, die durch Verbesserung der Methodik beseitigt werden könnten. Die Ursache muß vielmehr in biologischen Gegebenheiten des Wurzelspitzenmeristems und der einzelnen Zellen gesucht werden. Hierfür kommen 2 Vorgänge in Betracht.

Eine Einschränkung des Zufalls beim Auftreten einer Mitose im Meristem kann begründet sein durch einen festgelegten Teilungsrhythmus der Einzelzelle, so daß der Zeitpunkt ihres Eintritts in die Mitose nicht vom Zufall bestimmt wird, sondern vom Abstand von der vorhergehenden Teilung abhängt, also ein zeitliches Muster der Teilung gegeben ist. Zum anderen kann eine räumliche Wechselwirkung zwischen den benachbarten Zellen eines Meristems bestehen derart, daß eine Teilung in einer Zelle die umgebenden daran hindert, gleichzeitig in Teilung zu treten, wodurch eine bestimmte Mindestentfernung als Interferenzwirkung zwischen den Zellen des gleichen Stadiums erreicht wird, und eine Musterbildung zustande kommt. Es ist daher zu prüfen, bis zu welchem Grad diesen beiden Faktoren, Teilungsrhythmus der Einzelzelle und Musterbildung im Gewebe, ein einschränkender Einfluß auf die Variabilität der Mitosehäufigkeit zukommt.

Hierzu gibt eine Betrachtung der biologischen Struktur des Materials einige Hinweise. Grundsätzlich sind alle Zellen des Meristems teilungsbereit (OEHLKERS). Nach den Kenntnissen über die Kernteilungsvorgänge ist es aber sicher, daß eine Zelle nicht sofort nach einer Mitose wiederum in eine Teilung eintreten kann. Erst nach Ablauf eines gewissen unbekannten Zeitraumes wird im Kern die neue Chromosomenlängsspaltung angelegt und ermöglicht dadurch eine erneute Teilung. Sicherlich spielt in diesem Zusammenhang die Nukleinsäuresynthese, die nach BULLOUGHs (1951), RIS' (1947) und POLLISTER und RIS' (1947) Untersuchungen an verschiedenen Objekten in diesen Zeitraum fällt, eine entscheidende Rolle. BULLOUGH grenzte daher diesen Abschnitt, in dem die notwendigen Energien für die neue Teilung gewonnen werden, ebenfalls ab und bezeichnete ihn als „Antephase“, da er unmittelbar vor der neuen Teilung liegt. Teilungsvorbereitung und Antephase sind also praktisch entsprechende Begriffe. Wann nun die neue Mitose und damit die Teilungstätigkeit tatsächlich eintritt, hängt jetzt ab von der Einwirkung vieler Faktoren, von denen jeder einzelne nicht für die Teilung notwendig ist, die aber zusammen im Sinn seltener Ereignisse die Einleitung der Mitose veranlassen. Unter den 100 Zellen einer Probe gibt es also echte Ruhekerne, die sich momentan nicht teilen können, und antephasische und teilungstätige Kerne, wobei letztere leicht festzustellen sind, ruhende und antephasische Kerne dagegen äußerlich nicht unterschieden werden können. Die echten Ruhekerne, die sich also aus inneren Ursachen heraus im Augenblick nicht im Stadium der möglichen Teilungsauslösung befinden, sind diejenigen, die vor kurzer Zeit die Mitose beendet haben. Jede Zelle macht demnach einen rhythmischen Wechsel zwischen den Zuständen der Teilungsruhe, der Teilungsvorbereitung und der Teilungstätigkeit durch. Die Verteilung der Zellen des Meristems auf diese

3 Gruppen hängt ab von der Häufigkeit der Mitosen im vorangegangenen Zeitabschnitt, von der Dauer der „Erholungsphase“, während der die Teilungsvorbereitung wieder hergestellt wird, und von der Intensität, mit der die teilungsauslösenden Einwirkungen erfolgen. Über die Dauer von Kernteilungszyklus, Mitose und Ruhekerntadium, sowie über die für ein Fortbestehen der Antephase mögliche Änderung der Zeitdauer dieser Phasen liegen verschiedene Untersuchungen vor (v. MÖLLENDORFF 1937/38/41 und LAQUEUR 1938), aus denen weiter ersichtlich wird, daß bei Überschreiten eines bestimmten Grenzwertes die meristematische Fähigkeit erlischt. Da die Zelle andererseits eine Mindestzeit nach der Teilung braucht, um wieder in Teilung treten zu können, wird immer eine Anzahl „ruhender“ Kerne im Meristem vorhanden sein. Die Zellen können aber — wie gesagt — nicht unbegrenzt im Stadium der Ruhe oder der Teilungsvorbereitung verharren, sondern müssen nach Ablauf einer bestimmten Zeit in die Mitose eintreten, wenn diese Fähigkeit nicht verlorengehen soll. Die erneute Teilung einer neu gebildeten Zelle ist zeitlich nach beiden Richtungen begrenzt, also einem Zwang unterworfen. Die 3 Gruppen von Zellen werden demnach immer nebeneinander im Meristem vorliegen. Die Grenzen, innerhalb derer Schwankungen in der allein feststellbaren Häufigkeit der teilungstätigen Zellen vorkommen können, sind aus diesem Grund viel enger als die theoretischen Werte 0—100%. Die Rate antephasischer Zellen liegt höher als die ermittelte Mitosehäufigkeit ist aber wesentlich geringer als die Gesamtzahl der Zellen des Meristems. Damit ist der Bereich, in dem zufällige Varianten möglich sind, ebenfalls eingeschränkt. Aus dem Vorhandensein eines Teilungsrythmus der Einzelzelle folgt, daß der Eintritt in die Mitose keine reine Zufallswirkung ist und daher auch nicht den Gesetzen einer Zufallsverteilung folgen kann.

Daß diese Einschränkung für beide Phasen Teilungsvorbereitung und Eintritt in die Teilung selbst gilt, ergibt sich aus folgenden Überlegungen. Genau genommen müßte zunächst auch der Anteil der antephasischen Zellen erfaßt und unter diesen der Prozentsatz der sich tatsächlich teilenden Zellen bestimmt werden. Wenn für beide Gruppen die Variabilität auf der Wirkung zufällig wirkender Ursachen beruhen würde, müßte sich trotzdem für den Anteil der Mitosezellen die normale Streuung einer Bernoulli-Verteilung ergeben. Die unternormale Streuung erklärt sich aber, sobald wenigstens einer der beiden Faktoren festgelegt ist. Es ist bekannt, daß nach beendeter Mitose erst die inneren Ursachen der Chromosomenverdoppelung die Voraussetzung für eine erneute Teilung geben. Unter der berechtigten Annahme, daß im Meristem die Herstellung der Antephase praktisch zwangsläufig vor sich geht, muß sich die Einschränkung der Zufallswirkung vor

allem auf die Herstellung der antephasischen Zellen beziehen. Falls dies zutrifft, dann müßte, wenn zur exakten Bestimmung des Anteils der sich teilenden Zellen diese nicht auf die Gesamtheit von 100 Zellen, sondern auf eine immer gleiche Anzahl von antephasischen Zellen bezogen werden, in diesem Bezugssystem die Streuung nur durch zufällige Einflüsse bestimmt und daher normal sein. Unter der Annahme, daß die Häufigkeit der antephasischen Zellen keinen zufälligen Schwankungen unterworfen und daher praktisch konstant ist, läßt sich dann berechnen, wie groß ihr Anteil sein muß, um für die gefundene Mitosehäufigkeit eine Zufallsverteilung zu ergeben. Zur Klärung dieser

Tabelle 5. *Vicia faba*. Berechnung der Häufigkeiten der antephasischen einschließlich der teilungstätigen Zellen.

Anzahl antephasischer + teilungstätiger Zellen unter 100 Zellen	Arithmetischer Mittelwert teilungstätiger Zellen bezogen auf 100 Zellen	σ	LEXISScher Divergenz-koeffizient (L)
100	9,16	1,87	0,65
66,6	13,74	2,80	0,73
62,5	14,65	2,99	0,77
58,8	15,57	3,18	0,82
55,5	16,48	3,37	0,87
52,6	17,40	3,55	0,91
50	18,32	3,74	0,96
33	27,47	5,61	1,02
25	36,63	7,48	1,22
20	45,79	9,35	1,29

Frage wurde das Verhalten der Streuung mittels des LEXISSchen Divergenzkoeffizienten L untersucht: $L = \sigma : \sigma_B$. Wenn $L > 1$ ist, liegt übernormale Dispersion vor; $L = 1$ bei normaler Dispersion; und $L < 1$ bei subnormaler Dispersion. Im vorliegenden Material beträgt $\sigma = 1,87$ und $L = 0,65$; L liegt also weit unter 1. Folglich handelt es sich darum, die bisherige

Auswertung von 100 Zellen auf eine geringere Zellenzahl, und zwar nur die wirklich antephasischen und teilungstätigen Zellen, zu beziehen. Bei dieser Verminderung vergrößert sich naturgemäß die Streuung, und L nähert sich dem Grenzwert 1. Die Berechnung zeigte, daß bei der Annahme einer nahezu konstanten Häufigkeit von etwa 33% antephasischer einschließlich teilungstätiger Zellen im Gesamtmaterial der Wurzelspitzen von *Vicia faba* die Verteilung der Mitosen eine normale Streuung erreicht (Tabelle 5).

Die konsequente Durchführung dieser Berechnungen für die Teilkollektive müßte bei vollständigem Zutreffen dieser Annahme immer zu dem gleichen Wert für die Häufigkeit der antephasischen Zellen führen. Tatsächlich finden sich aber in jeder Gruppe andere Werte. Hieraus ergibt sich, daß die getroffene Annahme einer in jeder Stichprobe konstanten Anzahl von antephasischen Zellen nicht uneingeschränkt zutreffen kann. Die Anzahl der antephasischen Zellen in den einzelnen Wurzelspitzen ist nicht ganz streng festgelegt, sondern schwankt etwas, wenn auch in sehr engen Grenzen. Durch eine der-

artige Variabilität müßte aber der Streubereich des gesamten Materials wieder vergrößert werden. Die Folgerung ist, daß auch für den anderen Faktor, die Herbeiführung der Teilungstätigkeit, die Zufallswirkungen nicht allein maßgebend sind, sondern sich auch hier eine Einschränkung bemerkbar macht. Die Zellen können nicht sofort nach Erreichung der inneren Teilungsvorbereitung in die Teilung eintreten, sondern brauchen, wie bereits dargelegt, erst eine Anzahl von Anregungen, die nicht in unendlich kurzer Zeit zusammentreffen können, so daß in einer Wurzelspitze nie alle antephasischen Zellen auch tatsächlich in Teilung sein können. Die Untersuchung zeigt also, daß sowohl die Antephasen wie die Teilungstätigkeit nicht mit konstant festgelegter Häufigkeit auftreten, sondern bestimmten Schwankungen unterliegen, die aber nur zum geringen Teil als zufallsbedingt angesprochen werden können. Dieser Zyklus unterliegt aus inneren Ursachen einem bestimmten Zwang, der zu einem Teilungsrhythmus der Einzelzelle führt, der jedoch nicht mit schematischer Strenge abläuft, sondern in diesem festgelegten Rahmen wird das Erreichen eines bestimmten Stadiums durch einwirkende Außenfaktoren geringen Schwankungen ausgesetzt.

Diese Überlegungen zeigen, daß die Annahme eines Teilungsrhythmus der Einzelzelle als begrenzenden Faktor für die Auslösung der Mitose durchaus zutreffend ist, es fragt sich aber, welche Rolle der zweiten Möglichkeit, der Ausbildung eines Musters im Meristem, zukommt. Wenn der Teilungsrhythmus allein oder vorwiegend bestimmend wäre, müßten sehr oft benachbarte Zellen, die aus einer Teilung hervorgegangen sind, wieder gleichzeitig in die nächste Teilung eintreten. Es werden allerdings manchmal 2, sehr selten 3—4 Zellen nebeneinander in Mitosestadien angetroffen, jedoch ist diese Erscheinung sehr viel seltener als bei einem streng festgelegten und nur wenig variierenden Rhythmus erwartet wird (s. Tabelle 6). Es muß also durch einen anderen Faktor eine Überlagerung stattfinden, der aber nicht als „Zufall“ anzusprechen ist, da er keine Vergrößerung der Variabilität in das Material hineinbringt. Eine derartig wirkende Begrenzung ist am leichtesten durch Musterbildung zu verstehen. Es sind einige weitere Anhaltspunkte dafür vorhanden, daß eine solche im Meristem tatsächlich vorliegt. Die Mitosen sind in den beiden Stichproben, die aus einer Wurzelspitze entnommen wurden, fast gleichmäßig verteilt, während bei einer zufälligen Anordnung einer begrenzten Anzahl von Teilungszellen sich ziemlich starke, aber im Bereich des Zufälligen liegende Differenzen zwischen beiden Proben ergeben müßten. Außerdem wurde zwar beobachtet, daß bis zu 3—4 Mitosen nebeneinanderliegen, aber diese befinden sich nie im gleichen Stadium der Teilung, und es wurden nie größere Gruppen von sich

teilenden Zellen gefunden, was in dem sehr umfangreichen Material bei einer willkürlichen Anordnung wenigstens einige Male hätte beobachtet werden müssen. Die Mitosen sind demnach nicht zufällig, sondern gleichmäßig im ganzen Meristem verteilt. In kleineren Bezirken kann dagegen anscheinend eine Zufallsanordnung vorkommen. Es liegt daher nahe, eine Einschränkung der zufälligen Verteilung für die antephasischen einschließlich der teilungstätigen Zellen anzunehmen. In einer Probe von 100 Zellen liegen dann die antephasischen einschließlich teilungstätigen Zellen in einem nicht erkennbaren Muster verteilt, während sich die Mitosen zufällig in diesem Muster vorfinden. Wenn

Tabelle 6.

Wurzel- spitze	Zellen Nr. 1-200																				Kern- teilungs- rate(%)
	Verteilung der Mitosen in den auch im Querschnittpräparat deutlich nebeneinander liegenden Zellen																				
1	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190	12,5	
2																					13,5
3																					12
4																					12,5
5																					13,5
6																					12
7																					12
8																					12
9																					12,5
10																					11
247 Mitosen, 1753 Ruhekerns																					12,25

eine Zelle die Teilung beendet hat, also zeitweilig sich nicht teilen kann, können sich in ihrer Umgebung weitere in den Zustand der Teilungsvorbereitung begeben, in dem dann die Mitose ausgelöst werden kann.

Zusammenfassend läßt sich sagen, daß für die Ausschaltung der reinen Zufallswirkung beim Auftreten der Mitosen im Wurzelspitzenmeristem 2 Hauptfaktoren zu berücksichtigen sind. Die Einzelzelle besitzt einen bestimmten Teilungsrhythmus, der sie veranlaßt, nacheinander verschiedene Stadien des Teilungszyklus durchzumachen, wobei die einzelnen Stadien durch eine Mindest- und Höchstdauer unter den jeweils gegebenen Verhältnissen festgelegt sind. Der Übergang in das nächste Stadium wird in diesem Rahmen nicht ausschließlich durch Zufallsfaktoren bestimmt, sondern hierbei macht sich die überlagernde Wirkung der Musterbildung im Gesamtmeristem, von dem die Einzelzelle einen Teil darstellt, bemerkbar. Innerhalb dieses nach 2 Richtungen, räumlich und zeitlich, begrenzten Rahmens können sich die Zufallsfaktoren bemerkbar machen, die auf die Erreichung der Teilungsvorbereitung, die Auslösung der Teilung und die relative Länge

der einzelnen Stadien einwirken. Durch diese begrenzte Wirkungsmöglichkeit der Zufallsfaktoren kann sich auch für die Gesamtverteilung der Mitosehäufigkeiten keine Zufallskurve ergeben. Das Ausmaß der Abweichung von dieser ist ein Maßstab für die Wirksamkeit der beiden begrenzenden Faktoren. Es erscheint abschließend noch angebracht, in diesem Zusammenhang kurz auf die Ergebnisse ROTTAS (1950) einzugehen, da sie am selben Objekt gewonnen wurden, aber mit den statistischen Erfahrungen an dem sehr umfangreichen vorliegenden Material (über 8200 Wurzelspitzen) nicht in Einklang gebracht werden können. ROTTAS erhält eine noch geringere Streuung als sie *Vicia faba*-Wurzelspitzen hiernach (Population 4/10/5) an sich schon eigen ist. Das erscheint um so unerwarteter als ROTTAS sehr wenige Auszählungen (an etwa 200 Wurzelspitzen) vornahm und je Fixierungszeit nur 4 Wiederholungen ansetzte, die zudem noch Proben verschiedenen Umfangs waren, d. h. von 37—302 Zellen umfassen. Nach der Berechnung der Fehlerkurven von HARTE (1950) dagegen weisen Auszählungen unter 100 Zellen je Wurzelspitze einen beachtlich vergrößerten Streuwert auf und sind damit unbrauchbar für weitere Schlüsse. Eine Erklärung für die widersprechenden Befunde ROTTAS ist daher sehr schwierig.

2. Die Inhomogenität und ihre Ursache.

Die Inhomogenität der einzelnen Teilkollektive zeigt an, daß das Material nicht einheitlich ist, sondern systematische Unterschiede zwischen den einzelnen Fixierungen vorliegen. Die auslösenden Ursachen für diese Differenzen müssen zum Teil über längere Zeiträume hinweg gleichbleiben, da sich jeweils größere, zeitlich zusammenhängende Gruppen von Fixierungen deutlich von anderen Gruppen unterscheiden: 1. durch Verschiebung der Mittelwerte und 2. durch Veränderung der Streuung.

ad 1. Als Faktoren, die eine *Verschiebung der Mittelwerte* der Teilungsrate bewirken können, kommen ein sog. Tagesfaktor und ein Stundenfaktor in Betracht. Die Unregelmäßigkeit des Tagesfaktors, der sich in gesetzlosen Veränderungen der Mittelwerte und Dichtemittel der Kernteilungsfrequenz zwischen den Tages- und Wochenvergleichsgruppen äußert, ist möglicherweise auf die Einwirkung exogener Einflüsse zurückzuführen, die in einer folgenden Publikation im Zusammenhang mit den entsprechenden Klimadaten ausführlich behandelt werden sollen. Diesem Tagesfaktor steht ein gesetzmäßig schwankender Stundenfaktor gegenüber, für dessen Wirkungsweise es verschiedene Erklärungsmöglichkeiten gibt: So ist es denkbar, daß physiologische Vorgänge in der Pflanze mit tagesperiodisch wechselnden Außenbedingungen in Korrelation stehen. Man kann hierbei eine Beeinflussung über das Chlorophyll und die Assimilationsvorgänge in

Betracht ziehen, doch ist diese Erklärung für den vorliegenden Fall nicht befriedigend, da es sich bei den Untersuchungen nur um wenige Tage alte Sämlinge handelte, die die Primärblätter noch gar nicht entfaltet hatten. Eine andere Möglichkeit der Interpretation des Stundenfaktors ist die einer endogenen Rhythmik, die aber erst in einer folgenden Arbeit ausführlich behandelt werden soll.

ad 2. Weitere Rückschlüsse auf die Inhomogenität der Teilkollektive erlauben die Untersuchungen der *Streuungsveränderungen*:

Bei kleiner Streuung muß an die Möglichkeit gedacht werden, daß die sonst wirksamen Zufallsfaktoren, welche die Teilungsvorbereitung und Mitose auslösen können, in ihrer Auswirkung behindert oder überlagert werden.

Bei vergrößerter Streuung kommt dagegen den Zufallsfaktoren eine erhöhte Bedeutung bei der Auslösung der Teilungsvorbereitung und Teilungstätigkeit zu.

Eine erhöhte bzw. verminderte Streuung läßt also mit Sicherheit erkennen, daß der Rhythmus der Einzelzelle oder die Musterbildung im Gewebe in der Weise betroffen wird, daß sich eine erhöhte oder verminderte Sensibilität gegenüber Zufallsfaktoren einstellt.

Bei einer gegensinnigen Beeinflussung der Faktoren Teilungsvorbereitung und Teilungstätigkeit können sogar gleichbleibende Werte für Mittelwert und Streuung resultieren: Nimmt man beispielsweise an, es liegen 100 antephasische und teilungstätige Zellen vor und 10% von ihnen befinden sich in Mitose und ein Agens x setze die Zahl der antephasischen Zellen um 50% herab, verdoppele dagegen die Anzahl der normalen Mitosehäufigkeit, so ist die Folge, daß im Präparat nach wie vor 10% Mitosen nachzuweisen sind, die aber in Wirklichkeit auf nur 50 in Frage kommende Zellen entfallen, während die restlichen 50 Zellen gar nicht mitgewertet werden dürften. Aus diesem Beispiel ersieht man, daß durchaus die Möglichkeit besteht, daß relativ schwach wirkende Einflüsse, sofern sie nur auf *einen* Faktor einwirken, einen großen Ausschlag ergeben, während sehr stark wirkende Einflüsse, sofern sie eben *beide* Faktoren entgegengesetzt beeinflussen, in ihren Auswirkungen völlig unsichtbar bleiben können.

Zusammenfassung.

1. Es wurde die Mitosehäufigkeit von *Vicia faba* der Population 4/10/5 vom 12. 7. bis 23. 8. 48 in stündlichem Abstand von 4—23 Uhr untersucht. Damit wurden insgesamt über 8200 Wurzelspitzen, d. h. über 1640000 Zellen, ausgewertet.
2. Die Häufigkeitsverteilung der Mitosen ähnelt unter Normalbedingungen einer Normalverteilung, ohne mit ihr ganz überein-

zustimmen. Asymmetrische Verteilungstypen sind darstellungs-, aber nicht materialbedingt.

3. Die nach Wochen, Tagen, Stunden und Fixierungseinheiten zusammengefaßte Dichte der Mitosehäufigkeiten ergibt gesichert verschiedene Mittelwerte und Streuung. Dies ist ein Ausdruck dafür, daß unter Normalbedingungen das Teilungswachstum nicht konstant und mit gleichmäßiger Geschwindigkeit abläuft, sondern ziemlich starken Schwankungen unterliegt.

4. Die Zelle besitzt einen endogenen Rhythmus, demzufolge sie in einer bestimmten Zeitspanne, die innerhalb verhältnismäßig enger Grenzen variieren kann, zur Teilung gelangt. Der Teilungsrhythmus der Einzelzelle wird durch die Wirkung teilungsfördernder oder hemmender Faktoren überlagert.

5. Es gelang erstmals an einem botanischen Objekt mit statistischen Methoden Ruhekerne und antephasische Kerne zu unterscheiden und einen Überblick über ihren zahlenmäßigen Anteil im Wurzelspitzenmeristem zu gewinnen.

6. Das gesamte Meristem weist ein Zellenmuster auf, in dem die antephasischen einschließlich teilungstätigen Zellen regelmäßig verteilt sind. Die teilungstätigen Zellen sind in diesem Muster verstreut, ohne selber ein neues Muster zu bilden.

7. Die Untersuchung der Streuung ergab für alle Teilkollektive unternormale Dispersion. Diese Besonderheit wird aus der Tatsache verständlich, daß die Gruppe von 100 Zellen in doppelter Hinsicht eine Stichprobe darstellt: Einerseits sind in ihr als Variable antephasische und teilungstätige Kerne, andererseits aber echte Ruhekerne vorhanden. Die Bestimmung der Mitosehäufigkeit ist hierbei als ein sehr guter Näherungswert für die Richtung und Größenordnung der Veränderungen anzusehen.

8. Die Inhomogenität des Materials ist durch 2 Faktoren nachweisbar bestimmt: einen unregelmäßig schwankenden Tagesfaktor und einen regelmäßig schwankenden Stundenfaktor.

9. Diese beiden Faktoren, die im Rahmen des zeitlichen und räumlichen Musters die Zellteilung beeinflussen, wirken zum Teil direkt auf die einzelnen Phasen des Teilungszyklus und damit auf das Niveau der Teilungsrate, zum Teil aber auch auf die Straffheit der Rhythmik und Musterbildung ein und bewirken dadurch eine Veränderung der Streuung.

Herrn Professor Dr. Dr. H. MAEQUARDT danke ich herzlich für die wohlwollende Förderung der Arbeit und Frau Professor Dr. C. HARTE für wertvolle statistische Beratung.

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ABSORPTION MICROPHOTOMETRY OF IRREGULAR-SHAPED OBJECTS*.

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With 4 figures in the text.

(Eingegangen am 26. August 1952.)

I. Introduction.

The microphotometric evaluation of cytochemical color reactions, such as the Feulgen-reaction on desoxyribose nucleic acid (DNA), has in recent years attained increasing importance. New quantitative colour reactions will doubtless be developed but even the photometry of Feulgen-stained nuclei is still a new tool with large potentialities. To what extent these can be exploited will largely depend on improved control of various sources of error. Of these the author regards three, one chemical and two optical, as the most serious.

The first involves the factor of proportionality between the amount of dye and that of the natural substance indicated by it. The possibility cannot be ignored that this factor (which, in the case of the Feulgen-reaction, is known to depend on the fixative and on the duration of hydrolysis) may sometimes vary appreciably between different kinds of nuclei and different tissues, even if these are prepared on the same slide. The resulting "proportionality error" is discussed subsequently (PATAU and SWIFT, 1952). The optical errors are: first, the "distributional error" which is caused by non-uniformity of the dye distribution in the object; second, the "stray light error" which is due to such light as may enter the photo-receiver in spite of having bypassed that part of the object which is to be measured. Unfortunately the last two errors act in the same direction (the proportionality error may or may not): they lead to under-estimates. Both errors are, under otherwise equal conditions, the larger the less transparent the object. They can, therefore, be reduced (in the case of densely stained objects) by employing a wave length at which the absorption by the dye is less than maximal. This expedient was first used by SWIFT (1950b).

* Contribution from the Program in Cytology, Department of Botany, University of Wisconsin, Madison, supported in part by grants to Dr. C. LEONARD HUSKINS from the Research Committee of the Graduate School with funds supplied by the Wisconsin Alumni Research Foundation.

It is pointed out in the subsequent paper that there is ample evidence that in many cases the total error of the usual microphotometric method must have been quite small. But there is also no doubt that at least the two optical errors may, under certain conditions, add up to produce misleading results (discussed by PATAU and BLOCH elsewhere). And there are many cases, such as very small objects or geometrically complicated structures (e.g. a set of metaphase chromosomes) which cannot be tackled at all with the usual method. The reason for this failure is really the fact that this "conventional" method was borrowed from the absorption photometry of solutions, color filters and the like, where it is easily arranged that the extinction along all utilized light paths is identical. This minimum requirement for the validity of BEER-LAMBERT's law patently does not fit most cytological conditions. The conventional microphotometric method has, therefore, only its simplicity to recommend it; in this it is superior to all apparent alternatives and will probably always be valued as an extremely useful tool, if only for limited purposes.

The most generally applicable method would be one into which the geometrical properties of the object, that is, its size and shape, do not enter at all. This, of course, would also eliminate the distributional error. In principle this can be easily achieved by using a wavelength at which the stained object is so highly transparent that all dye "molecules" are exposed to practically the same flux of photons, in other words, that there is no effective shadowing. In that case the number of dye "molecules" will be practically proportional to the amount of light absorbed out of a given light flux. This presupposes, of course, that the unstained object would not absorb at all. Such lack of "non-specific" absorption is henceforth assumed herein.

Let the aperture of a phototube be located in the plane of the microscopical image of the object to be measured. Let the field (in the plane of the object) corresponding to that aperture be B , which stands also for the area of this field. Let B contain the whole object plus, possibly, empty areas (or, if the dye content of only a part of the object is to be determined, let B include precisely that part). B need not be circular. In fact, a rectangular field (achieved by an adjustable rectangular aperture of the phototube) may sometimes have advantages. Let B be illuminated by a beam of parallel monochromatic light with normal incidence and uniform intensity. Let the phototube have constant sensitivity all over B and let its response to a light flux entering the phototube aperture (that is, the image of B) be proportional to that flux. This, therefore, may henceforth be considered as given in galvanometer units.

Let the just defined flux be I_1 if the object is present in B and $I_0 > I_1$ after removal of the object. For the moment it is assumed

that the flux (I_1 or I_0) entering the image of B is proportional to that leaving B (deviations from this due to stray light will be discussed in section IV). With a very low absorption the amount of dye γ will be approximately proportional to the relative loss of light

$$L = \frac{I_0 - I_1}{I_0} = 1 - T$$

$T = \frac{I_1}{I_0}$ is the transmission of the field B containing the object.

If B is enlarged (adding more empty area) $I_0 - I_1$ will remain the same while I_0 increases in proportion to B . Hence, it is approximately

$$\gamma = K B L \quad (1)$$

K is a constant which will later be shown to equal $1/k \ln 10$ where k is the extinction coefficient¹ of the dye at the chosen wave length. The above γ does not noticeably depend on the dye distribution as long as the object is highly transparent in all its parts.

For practical purposes eq. (1) is quite useless as it is reasonably accurate only for so high transmissions that the light loss cannot be measured with any precision. If the wave length is shifted in the direction of increasing absorption (i.e. increasing k) the value γ as given by eq. (1) will fall more and more below the true amount of dye. This error of γ depends on the dye distribution and may, therefore, be different (at the same wave length) for any two objects. It occurred to the author that it might be possible to estimate this error for any object from measurements done at two different wave lengths from the range where accurate measurements are possible. It was hoped that a correction factor C thus obtained would show only a negligible, residual dependency on the dye distribution so that $\gamma = K B L C$ (L based on measurements at one, C on readings at both wave lengths) could be applied to even the most irregular objects.

This hope proved to be fully justified. The author learned only recently, when he showed his solution to Dr. SWIFT that ORNSTEIN had already presented a two wave length method at the Symposium on Microspectrophotometry of Cells (M.I.T., 1951). The author is indebted to Dr.'s SWIFT and ORNSTEIN for an opportunity to see the latter's

¹ The extinction coefficient may be defined as the extinction (i.e. the negative \log_{10} of the transmission) obtained with a beam of parallel monochromatic light which passes with normal incidence through a uniformly transparent layer containing 1 mg of dye per 1 cm² of area. The usual reference to solutions is not necessary and would not fit our case. It is henceforth always assumed that for a uniformly transparent layer BEER-LAMBERT's law is valid, i.e., that the extinction is proportional to the amount of dye per unit area. This has been formulated in terms of dye in order not to involve a possible proportionality error. Actually the extinction coefficient will have to be related to the amount of natural substance (e.g. DNA) the color reaction is meant to indicate.

manuscript while still in press (ORNSTEIN, 1952). Our solutions, though obtained by a different approach, turned out to be mathematically, if not in appearance, identical. The purpose of the present paper is, first, to offer the new method in a form which greatly reduces the computational labor and, second, to analyze in more detail the (as ORNSTEIN already demonstrates: high) theoretical accuracy of this method. The claims which can be raised in this respect are so remarkable that they deserve most careful checking. This requires a theoretical treatment which alone can separate the systematic errors inherent in the determination of the dye-content from the unknown proportionality error and from a possible biological variation in the amount, say, of DNA per nucleus.

II. The Ideal Case.

The two wave lengths λ_1 and λ_2 are chosen so that the respective extinction coefficients of the dye form the ratio $k_1:k_2 = 1:2$. A different ratio could be used but would lead to a mathematically more complicated solution. Within a certain range of wave lengths λ_1 may be selected arbitrarily. λ_2 with $k_2 = 2k_1$ should not be determined by simply consulting a standard absorption curve of the dye. Such curves often depend to some degree on the solvent (in the case of a dye solution) or on the kind of association of the dye with a solid substrate. Hence, λ_2 has to be found by means of a "test object" from the same slide which contains the objects finally to be measured. This is chosen so as to permit the most accurate determination of the extinction E at various wave lengths. Thus λ_2 is found so that $E(\lambda_2) = 2E(\lambda_1)$. Let us assume this could be interpreted as $k_2 = 2k_1$. Actually this will be fulfilled only approximately. The resulting error will be discussed in section V.

The conditions of measurement have already been defined in section I (p. 342). To make a precise solution possible the dye distribution must be specified. Let this be done by postulating a uniform transparency of the object all over its area (the object can here be regarded as two-dimensional, as the illuminating beam has been assumed to be parallel light). The shape of this area is irrelevant, it may even consist of any number of separate parts. It will be shown in section III that the solution which is correct for such a distribution is still an excellent approximation for any kind of distribution, in other words, that only a small distributional error is caused by an uneven dye distribution within the area of the object.

The new method requires four photometric readings per object, namely, at each wave length, one with and one without object—at $\lambda_1: I_{11}$ (with 0.) and I_{10} (without 0.), at $\lambda_2: I_{21}$ and I_{20} . These yield the transmissions (of the whole field B) $T_1 = I_{11}/I_{10}$ and $T_2 = I_{21}/I_{20}$, and further $L_1 = 1 - T_1$ and $L_2 = 1 - T_2$. Let k_1 be the extinction

coefficient of the dye at λ_1 and let $Q = L_2/L_1$; then the amount of dye in the object can be shown to be

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \gamma &= K B L_1 C \\ \text{with } K &= \frac{1}{k_1 \ln 10} \\ \text{and } C &= \frac{1}{2-Q} \ln \frac{1}{Q-1} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (2)$$

The actual computation of the factor C is made unnecessary by Table I which gives C as a function of Q . [This should be particularly useful for high values of Q at which the accuracy of smaller logarithm tables becomes insufficient for calculating $\log 1/(Q-1)$.] Linear interpolation is possible unless Q approaches 1. Such values are outside the useful range and can always be avoided (cf. below). The constant K can usually be neglected, as in most cases only relative amounts γ are desired. A new method for finding K by relating optical to chemical determinations will be given later. The equation $K = 1/k_1 \ln 10$ is of interest only if results obtained by the new and by the conventional method are to be compared. In the latter the corresponding constant is $1/k_1$.

It can easily be verified that ORNSTEIN's (1952) equ. (8) substituted in his equ. (3) leads to the above equ. (2) if ORNSTEIN's symbols T_{12} ,

Table I. See equ. (2).

Q	C	Q	C	Q	C	Q	C
1.00	∞	1.25	1.848	1.50	1.386	1.75	1.151
1.01	4.652	1.26	1.820	1.51	1.374	1.76	1.143
1.02	3.992	1.27	1.794	1.52	1.362	1.77	1.136
1.03	3.615	1.28	1.768	1.53	1.351	1.78	1.129
1.04	3.353	1.29	1.743	1.54	1.340	1.79	1.122
1.05	3.153	1.30	1.720	1.55	1.329	1.80	1.116
1.06	2.993	1.31	1.697	1.56	1.318	1.81	1.109
1.07	2.859	1.32	1.676	1.57	1.307	1.82	1.103
1.08	2.745	1.33	1.655	1.58	1.297	1.83	1.096
1.09	2.646	1.34	1.635	1.59	1.287	1.84	1.090
1.10	2.558	1.35	1.615	1.60	1.277	1.85	1.084
1.11	2.480	1.36	1.596	1.61	1.267	1.86	1.077
1.12	2.409	1.37	1.578	1.62	1.258	1.87	1.071
1.13	2.345	1.38	1.561	1.63	1.249	1.88	1.065
1.14	2.286	1.39	1.544	1.64	1.240	1.89	1.059
1.15	2.232	1.40	1.527	1.65	1.231	1.90	1.054
1.16	2.182	1.41	1.511	1.66	1.222	1.91	1.048
1.17	2.135	1.42	1.496	1.67	1.214	1.92	1.042
1.18	2.091	1.43	1.481	1.68	1.205	1.93	1.037
1.19	2.050	1.44	1.466	1.69	1.197	1.94	1.031
1.20	2.012	1.45	1.452	1.70	1.189	1.95	1.026
1.21	1.975	1.46	1.438	1.71	1.181	1.96	1.020
1.22	1.941	1.47	1.425	1.72	1.173	1.97	1.015
1.23	1.909	1.48	1.412	1.73	1.166	1.98	1.010
1.24	1.878	1.49	1.399	1.74	1.158	1.99	1.005
1.25	1.848	1.50	1.386	1.75	1.151	2.00	1.000

T_0 , S , k_2 , and Q are replaced by the corresponding ones used here (namely T_2 , T_1 , B , k_1 and γ respectively) and if the T 's are transformed into our L and Q . A direct proof of equ. (2) will be found below in that of equ. (9) which, for the special case $\Delta = 0$, turns into equ. (2). It will, in that proof, be shown that the transmission τ_1 of the object (not to be confused with the transmission T_1 of the whole field B) at λ_1 equals $Q - 1$. A highly transparent object ($\tau_1 \rightarrow 1$) yields, therefore, $Q \rightarrow 2$ and (cf. Table 1) $C \rightarrow 1$. Thus equ. (2) contains, indeed, equ. (1) as the limit solution for extremely transparent objects.

It has already been pointed out that with $\tau_1 \rightarrow 1$ the accuracy of the photometric readings becomes insufficient. On the other hand, with increasingly densely stained objects ($\tau_1 \rightarrow 0$ and $Q \rightarrow 1$) even the new method will suffer from an increasingly serious distributional error caused by deviations from the assumption of a uniformly transparent object (cf. the next section). Fortunately the wave lengths can always (unless there is not enough dye for any kind of photometric measurements) be chosen so that the objects attain a medium transparency. This corresponds to the upper medium range of Q in Table 1.

III. The Distributional Error.

If the object is not uniformly transparent, equ. (2) will yield only an approximation γ of the true amount γ' of dye. Let the resulting distributional error be defined as $\delta = \frac{\gamma - \gamma'}{\gamma'}$. δ has been computed for a number of distributions which were selected so as to cover probably all "degrees of distributional non-uniformity" likely to occur in cytological work. The attempt to justify this claim must wait for the second part of this section. It has already been pointed out that for increasingly transparent objects equ. (2) converges towards equ. (1) and further (section I) that for extremely transparent objects equ. (1) holds true for all distributions whatsoever. Consequently, δ must for every object converge towards 0 with increasing transparency (as can be brought about by changing the wave length). δ must, therefore, be regarded as a function of some sort of variate which expresses the absorption occurring in a given object. As such the maximum E_m of all "local extinctions" at the wave length λ_2 was chosen (the maximum at λ_1 would be $\frac{1}{2} E_m$). Although "local" refers to points or, rather, single light paths it will often be possible to determine E_m approximately by measuring, under oil immersion, a very small area.

Some of the selected distributions are represented in Fig. 1, top. It should be understood that the shape of the object area and that of the parts which have the indicated extinctions does not matter in the least. What matters for instance in case A is that one fifth of the area

has an extinction four times as high as that in the remaining area. This means that half of the dye is concentrated in one fifth of the area. Such a situation might be approximated in a severely squashed nucleus which

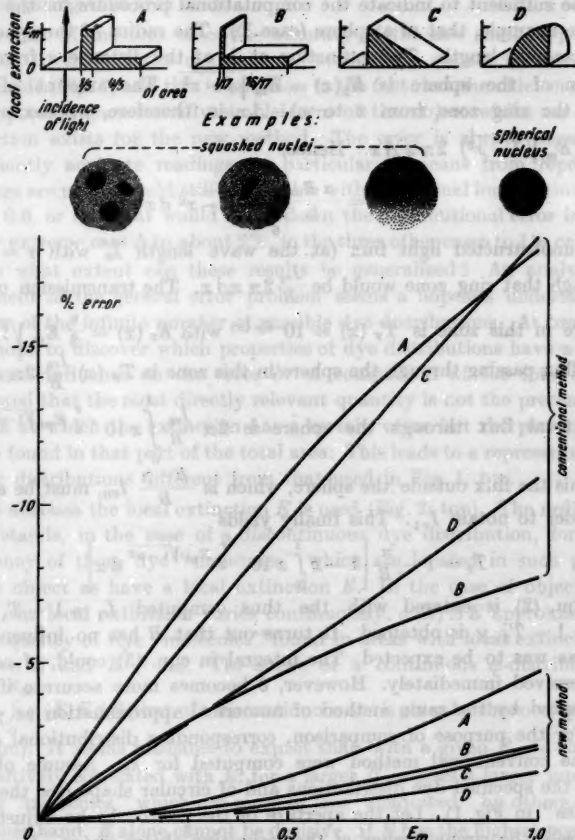


Fig. 1. Abscissa: Maximum of local absorption at the wave length λ_1 . Ordinate: distributional error in % of the true amount of dye. New method using λ_1 and λ_2 with extinction coefficients $k_2 = 2k_1$. Conventional method using λ_1 .

contains half of the chromatin as heterochromatic bodies—certainly a rather extreme case of non-uniform distribution. Case C would exist if all extinctions between 0 and E_m occurred equally frequently in the area of the object, no matter how the variously stained parts are

distributed¹. Case D stands for a single sphere as well as for any number of uniformly stained spheres of equal size.

To obtain δ , γ and γ' must be computed as functions of E_m . It will be sufficient to indicate the computational procedure for the least simple example, that of a sphere (case D). The radius of the sphere is used as unit length. The extinction at λ_2 at the distance x from the center of the sphere is $E_2(x) = E_m \sqrt{1-x^2}$. The amount of dye over the ring zone from x to $x + \Delta x$ is, therefore, approximately

$\frac{1}{2k_1} (E_m \sqrt{1-x^2}) 2\pi x \Delta x$. Hence,

$$\gamma' = \frac{\pi E_m}{k_1} \int_0^1 x \sqrt{1-x^2} dx \quad (3)$$

The unobstructed light flux (at the wave length λ_ν with $\nu = 1, 2$) through that ring zone would be $\frac{I_{\nu 0}}{B} 2\pi x \Delta x$. The transmission of the

sphere in this zone is $T_\nu(x) = 10^{-E_\nu(x)}$ with $E_\nu(x) = \frac{\nu}{2} E_m \sqrt{1-x^2}$.

The flux passing through the sphere in this zone is $T_\nu(x) \frac{I_{\nu 0}}{B} 2\pi x \Delta x$.

The total flux through the sphere is $2\pi \frac{I_{\nu 0}}{B} \int_0^1 x 10^{-\frac{\nu}{2} E_m \sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$.

To this the flux outside the sphere, which is $\frac{B-\pi}{B} I_{\nu 0}$, must be added in order to obtain $I_{\nu 1}$. This finally yields

$$T_\nu = 1 - \frac{\pi}{B} \left[1 - 2 \int_0^1 x 10^{-\frac{\nu}{2} E_m \sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \right] \quad (4)$$

If equ. (2) is entered with the thus computed $L_1 = 1 - T_1$ and $L_2 = 1 - T_2$, γ is obtained. It turns out that B has no influence on γ —as was to be expected. The integral in equ. (3) could, of course, be resolved immediately. However, δ becomes more accurate if γ' is computed by the same method of numerical approximation as γ .

For the purpose of comparison, corresponding distributional errors of the conventional method were computed for λ_2 . Assume objects with the specified dye distributions and of circular shape (see the "examples" in Fig. 1). Let the aperture of the phototube be adjusted to precisely the circumference of the respective object image. If now B is equaled to the area of the object (i.e. to π in the above computation of case D) the field transmission [as given by equ. (4) in case D] becomes identical with the transmission of the object. The conventional method yields $\gamma'' = -\frac{1}{2k_1} B \log T_2$ with the error $\frac{\gamma'' - \gamma'}{\gamma'}$. Of course, in the case of a sphere the conventional method can do much better if the

¹ C is identical with ORNSTEIN's (1952) case A.

transmission is measured not for the whole sphere but only at a smaller central area of the sphere image (as first done with nuclei by SWIFT, 1950a). However, this refinement would also be possible with the new method (using that area as *B*).

In each of the four cases the accuracy of the new method proves superior to that of the conventional method by almost an order of magnitude (Fig. 1) and this in addition to the fact that the older method presupposes a geometrically simple form of the object whilst no such restriction exists for the new method. The error is always negative. Sufficiently accurate readings (in particular if means from repeated readings are used) should still be possible with a maximal local extinction $E_m = 0.6$, or so. That would bring down the distributional error in the rather extreme case A to about 2%, in the three other cases to 1% or less.

To what extent can these results be generalized? An analytical treatment of the general error problem seems a hopeless undertaking in view of the infinite number of possible dye distributions. At best we may hope to discover which properties of dye distributions have a predominant influence on the error δ . A comparison of the four cases suggested that the most directly relevant quantity is not the percentage of area at which the extinction has a certain value but the percentage of dye found in that part of the total area. This leads to a representation of dye distributions different from that used in Fig. 1, top.

As abscissa the local extinction E is used (Fig. 2, top). The ordinate $\varphi(E)$ stands, in the case of a discontinuous dye distribution, for the frequency of those dye "molecules" which are located in such parts of the object as have a local extinction E . In the case of objects in which the local extinction varies continuously, $\varphi(E) \Delta E$ approximates the frequency of dye "molecules" found in areas with local extinctions between E and $E + \Delta E$. The mean of a continuous φ -distribution

is $\bar{E} = \int_0^{E_m} \varphi(E) E dE$ (that of a discontinuous one is given by the corresponding sum). It seems plausible to expect that, with a given E_m , δ should be positively correlated with \bar{E} , for a larger \bar{E} implies a larger number of dye "molecules" which are more or less "shadowed" by others. On the other hand, \bar{E} alone cannot be decisive. If \bar{E} has the highest possible value ($\bar{E} = E_m$) the object has a uniform transparency and in that case eqn. (2) is accurate: $\delta = 0$ (Fig. 2, d). The most simple measure of a deviation from uniformity is the variance of the φ -distribution:

$\sigma_E^2 = \int_0^{E_m} \varphi(E) (E - \bar{E})^2 dE$ (or the corresponding sum). We may, consequently, expect that there is a positive correlation also between δ and σ_E^2 .

It is hardly to be expected that \bar{E} and σ_E^2 should fully determine δ . At best there may be a function of \bar{E} and σ_E^2 which, for a given E_m , is approximately proportional to δ . Rather surprisingly it was found that this function simply is the product $\bar{E} \sigma_E^2$. Fig. 2 shows all tested cases to have errors δ close to a linear regression (through the origin) on $\bar{E} \sigma_E^2$, both for $E_m = 0.5$ and $E_m = 1$ which covers about the useful range. This is, of course, only an empirical relation. However, the

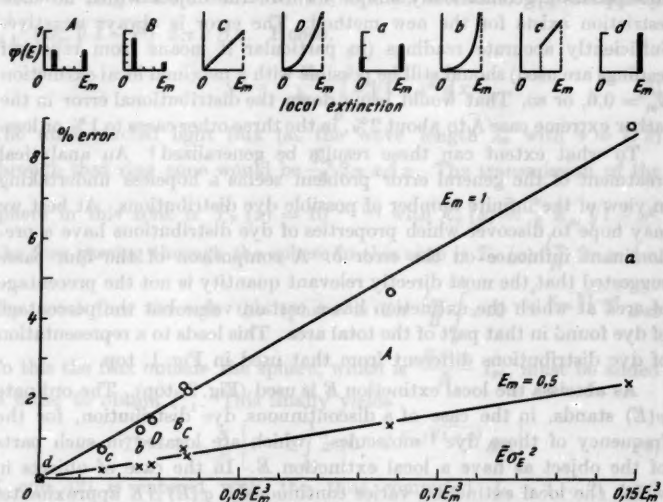


Fig. 2. See text. Cases A—D identical with those in Fig. 1. Case b represents uniformly stained cylinder with light incidence perpendicular to axis. Case c identical with that of Fig. 4, I.

correlation between δ and $\bar{E} \sigma_E^2$ in these very different dye distributions is so high that it cannot seriously be doubted that the error δ is, with a given E_m , predominantly determined by $\bar{E} \sigma_E^2$.

This makes it possible to estimate an upper limit for the distributional error. It can easily be proved that amongst all possible q -distributions the case a in Fig. 2 yields the maximum of $\bar{E} \sigma_E^2$. Case a would be approximated if one third of the dye were evenly spread over a very large area whilst the other two thirds were concentrated in a small area with the uniform extinction E_m . It is hard to imagine a cytological structure with a dye distribution approaching this extreme. And even then the error could, by working with wave lengths yielding $E_m = 0.5$, or so, be depressed below 3% (Fig. 2).

Actually, even case A with its considerably smaller error is an extreme unlikely to be encountered. The more irregular a cytological structure is, the more parts of it will have intermediate local extinctions which decrease $\bar{E} \sigma_E^2$ and, therefore, δ . It seems safe to say that the *distributional error can practically always be pushed below 2% and in most cases below 1%*. It is noteworthy that δ is particularly small in a case which the conventional method cannot handle at all: that of anaphase chromosomes separated by squashing so that practically no overlapping occurs. These can usually be regarded as cylinders of constant thickness. This is case b in Fig. 2.

IV. Other Errors.

It has so far been assumed that the illuminating beam consisted of parallel light, in other words, that the numerical aperture was $N.A. = 0$. This, of course, cannot be realized. We cannot go much below $N.A. = 0.3$. It remains to be shown that this N.A. would not seriously affect our results. Let, for the moment, the illuminating light be composed of two beams of equal intensity, one parallel to the optical axis of the microscope, the other at an angle α to this axis. Let the object be a sphere. The field B , while actually determined by the aperture of the phototube, may be represented by a diaphragm in the focal plane of the microscope (Fig. 3, left). For the inclined beam the effective field size is only $B' = B \cos \alpha$.

Obviously the photometric readings would remain the same if the inclined beam were separated from, and made parallel to, the other one and if a second, identical, sphere were put into the field B' of this beam (Fig. 3, right). Entering equ. (2) with the total field size $B + B'$ we would obtain 2γ and this would have the same relative distributional error as a single sphere measured with parallel light. This can be generalized: If the illuminating light consists of equally intense beams of different incidence, equ. (2) must be entered with the mean effective field size instead of B . Then the same γ will be obtained as if parallel light had been used. Let the object and the surrounding medium have a refractive index $n = 1.5$, let the light entering the substage condensor have uniform intensity, and let it be cut down to $N.A. = 1.5 \sin \alpha$.

The mean effective field size is then $\bar{B} = B \frac{2}{\sin^2 \alpha} \int_0^\alpha \sin x \cos^2 x dx$

which yields, for $N.A. = 0.3$, $\bar{B} = 0.990 B$.

With any object other than a sphere the conditions of absorption are not quite the same for beams of different incidence. The above considerations still hold true, however, with the one difference that the object in B' (Fig. 3) would now present a somewhat different appearance

from that in B . Measuring the given object with light consisting of two beams (with incidence 0 and α) would still be equivalent to measuring with parallel light those two objects (regarded as one, subdivided, object) in a field of size $B + B'$. The maximum of α possible with $\text{N.A.} = 0.3$ and $n = 1.5$ is $\arcsin 0.2 = 12^\circ$. Unless the object, or each of its stained parts, has a highly elongated form with orientation parallel to the microscope axis, neither E_m nor $\bar{E} \sigma_E^2$ will change appreciably with such a small change in the incidence of light. These two quantities and, hence, the

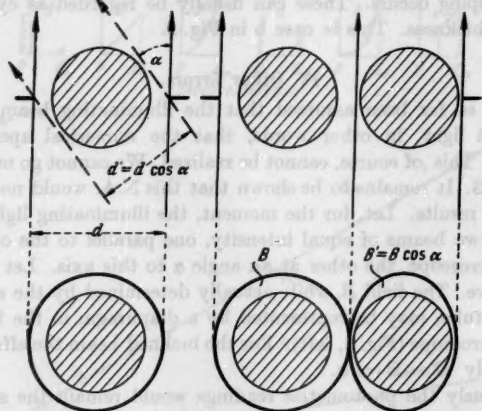


Fig. 3. See text.

distributional error will, therefore, be virtually the same for the combined object as for a single object in parallel light. This is extended to the general case of an illuminating beam in which all incidences of light occur which are possible with a given (small) N.A.

If in that case equ. (2) is entered with the mean effective field size \bar{B} the resulting γ can be regarded as obtained by measurements in parallel light of a similar object with identical dye content. The error theory of section III still applies. As a rule the distributional error will be practically the same as if the true object had been measured with parallel light and the field size \bar{B} . It is recommended that the same N.A. of about 0.3 always be used and the true field size B instead of the theoretically correct \bar{B} be retained. As far as relative dye contents are concerned a correction would be pointless as it would be the same for all objects. If absolute values are required the excess of B can serve to compensate partially for the distributional error. As shown above, with $n = 1.5$ and $\text{N.A.} = 0.3$, B will be too large by 1% whilst the distributional error is likely to be of the order of magnitude of -1% .

The last optical error to be considered here is the stray light error. The term "stray light" is used in the widest possible sense, namely for all light coming from an area in the plane of B that, for whatever reasons (including diffraction), does not reach the geometrical image of that area in the plane of the aperture of the phototube. Whether light which comes from area elements within B and enters the image of B does so at the geometrically corresponding area elements or whether it is stray light makes obviously no difference for our measurements. This is one of the reasons why the new method is so superior to the conventional one. The latter is limited to objects with diameters sufficiently large to render diffraction harmless. No such lower limit exists for the new method. To introduce an error into γ , stray light must cross either from B into the outside of the image of B , or from the outside of B into the image of B .

Stray light of the second kind is essentially identical with that which can produce appreciable errors in the conventional method. Such stray light presupposes, of course, that the illuminated area is at least somewhat larger than B . Let this be the case, and let I_{ν} , at the wavelength λ_{ν} ($\nu = 1, 2$) be the flux of stray light crossing from the outer illuminated zone into the image of B . Assume that uncoated lenses are used. λ_1 and λ_2 will usually not be very different (in the case of Feulgen-dye it might be, for instance, $\lambda_1 = 490 \text{ m}\mu$ and $\lambda_2 = 514 \text{ m}\mu$) and the change from one to the other will not noticeably change the relative amounts of stray light. Hence $I_{1,0}/I_{1,10} = I_{2,0}/I_{2,10} = x$. Instead of $I_{\nu,0}$ and $I_{\nu,1}$ the readings $I_{\nu,0} + I_{\nu}$ and $I_{\nu,1} + I_{\nu}$ are obtained. Consequently equ. (2) is entered with $L_{1,\nu} = \frac{I_{1,0} - I_{1,1}}{I_{1,0}(1+x)}$ instead of $L_1 = \frac{I_{1,0} + I_{1,1}}{I_{1,0}}$. Q is not affected. The computed γ is, therefore, too small by a relative stray light error equal to $-x$ (if coated lenses were used this might be true only approximately). This is a great improvement when compared with the stray light error of the conventional method which is always larger, and may be much larger, than x .

Whilst in the case of the conventional method only the above stray light percentage ($100x$) need be considered, this is not so with the new method. There is still the stray light which comes from B but does not reach the image of B . Especially with uncoated lenses a considerable fraction of the flux through B will become such "lost stray light". If all points of B contributed equally to this it would have no effect whatsoever on γ . In view of the, relative to the lenses, small size of B this will very nearly be the case. But not quite.

Let $i(P)$ be that part of the intensity at a point P of B which turns into lost stray light. Let i_0 be the minimum of $i(P)$ (which is presumably

attained at the center of B whilst the maximum, owing to diffraction, may be expected at the periphery of B). The flux $i_0 B$ can be neglected. It is the, relatively small, flux $I_{r,L} = \int_B (i(P) - i_0) dB$ which may

introduce a new kind of stray light error into γ . Contrary to $-x$ this error depends on the dye distribution within B . If the dye were uniformly spread over the whole of B this error would disappear and $-x$ would be the only stray light error. If, on the other hand, the object were concentrated in a (presumably central) area at which $i(P) - i_0$ is negligible (so that $I_{r,L}$ consisted almost exclusively of light which has not passed through the object) then γ would be too large by the relative error $y = I_{1,L}/I_{1,0} = I_{2,L}/I_{2,0}$. The total stray light error would be $y - x$.

How large are x and y likely to be? A detailed discussion leading to the following conclusions would go beyond the scope of the present paper. These conclusions (which take into account unpublished data on stray light percentages: PATAU and BLOCH) are, therefore, presented merely as the author's considered opinion: It appears best, first, to make B so large that it contains an outer zone of a very few micra width which is more or less free of the object and, secondly, to let the illuminated area exceed B by a zone of similar width¹. Under these circumstances (and of course with a fairly small N.A. of the condensor: 0.3, or so) the total stray light error (positive or negative) will probably always be well below, and possibly much below, 1%. The new method seems to be about as superior to the conventional method in regard to the stray light error (including the effects of diffraction) as it is in regard to the distributional error.

V. The Wave Length Error.

λ_1 and λ_2 had been selected so that the test object yielded the extinctions $E(\lambda_2) = 2E(\lambda_1)$. If those measurements had been absolutely accurate, if there were no stray light, and if the test object were a uniformly stained layer, it would then also be $k_2 = 2k_1$. Let, instead, the true ratio of extinction coefficients be $k_1:k_2 = 1:2(1 + \Delta)$. The small, unknown, error Δ is, according to the above, composed of three parts: $\Delta = \Delta_1 + \Delta_2 + \Delta_3$. Δ_1 is the sampling error of the galvanometer readings and can be made very small by taking a sufficient number of repeated readings. Fiducial limits of Δ_1 can be computed.

Δ_2 is approximately the difference of the relative stray light errors committed in the measurement of $E(\lambda_2)$ and $E(\lambda_1)$. These are the stray

¹ The illuminated field may safely be made considerably larger than B unless particularly high accuracy is required.

light errors of the conventional method. Δ_2 is always positive and can easily amount to several percent. To bring Δ_2 down, the following precautions should be taken, apart from using a small N.A. (e.g. 0.3): The test object should be not too densely stained [e.g. $E(\lambda_2) = 0.6$; with a much smaller extinction the non-specific absorption might become serious] and it should be relatively large. It should then be possible to make the illuminated field so small that it and practically all of its outer diffraction fringe fall into the object. Only the image of a central, uniformly illuminated, area H is admitted into the phototube.

Under the above conditions Δ_2 should drop well below 1% (PATAU and BLOCH, unpublished). It may, of course, happen that a slide does not contain a good test object. In Feulgen-absorption work, for instance, all nuclei of an organism might be very small. It may then be advisable to mount on the same slide a sample of equally fixed tissue from an (if possible, related) organism with large and fairly homogeneous nuclei. The use of a "foreign" test object presupposes, of course, that the same Feulgen procedure applied to the test object and to the objects finally to be measured has produced a dye which has the same absorption curve in all these objects. There is no apparent reason why this should not be so.

Δ_3 is caused by a non-uniform dye distribution within H . The test object should, of course, be selected so that its inner area H is as uniformly absorbing as possible. This should be checked under oil immersion. Distributional errors are caused by the existence of different light paths along which photons have different probabilities of getting absorbed. Such a situation is not changed if we employ a low objective which fails to resolve these irregularities. This brings up the question whether in an apparently uniform layer there might not be sub-microscopical irregularities producing a noticeable distributional error. That need not to be feared. A submicroscopic particle, however absorbing, cannot by its diffuse shadow lower much any other particle's probability of absorbing a photon. Different numbers of such particles along two parallel lines which are separated from each other by a mere fraction of a wave length will not cause a correspondingly large difference in extinction along these lines. In an area which appears homogeneous under oil immersion the true variation of local extinctions, if any, must be small.

It seems to the author that it should practically always be possible to find a test object with an inner area H within which the true variation of local extinctions is less than it is in the least favorable of the two models for which Δ_3 has been computed (Fig. 4, I). Altogether it appears that the total error Δ of the extinction ratio can be reduced to less, and possibly much less, than 2%. How does this error affect γ ?

It is now again assumed that the object for which γ is to be determined is uniformly absorbing and that the illuminating beam consists of parallel light with normal incidence. Let τ_v be the unknown transmission of the object at λ_v ($v = 1, 2$) (we measure T_v and not τ_v !). Let $F \leq B$ be the unknown total area of the object. This is equal to ORNSTEIN's $1-F$ but it will here, contrary to his treatment, ultimately

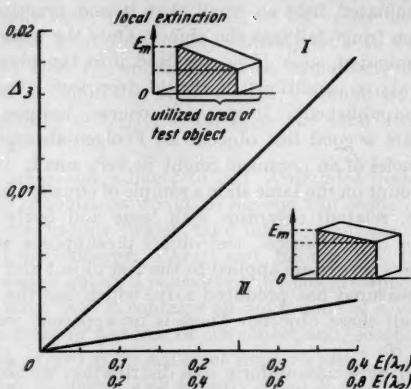


Fig. 4. Abscissa: gross extinction measured at wave lengths λ_1 and λ_2 . Ordinate: distributional error of the extinction ratio (with $E(\lambda_1):E(\lambda_2) = 1:2$; the extinction ratio, in the basence of other errors, would be $k_1:k_2 = 1:2(1 + \Delta_1)$).

be eliminated. The flux through F in the absence of the object is $\frac{F}{B} I_{v0}$; that with object $I_{v1} - \frac{B-F}{B} I_{v0}$. Hence:

$$\tau_v = 1 - \frac{B}{F} L_v. \quad (5)$$

The object has, at λ_v , the extinction $E_v = -\log \tau_v$. Because of $k_2 = 2(1 + \Delta) k_1$ it is $E_2 = 2(1 + \Delta) E_1$ and $\tau_2 = \tau_1^{2(1+\Delta)}$. This, in conjunction with equ. (5), leads to $Q = \frac{L_2}{L_1} = 1 + \tau_1 \frac{1 - \tau_1^{1+2\Delta}}{1 - \tau_1}$. Introducing

$$q(\Delta) = \frac{1 - \tau_1}{1 - \tau_1^{1+2\Delta}} \quad (6)$$

we obtain $\tau_1 = (Q - 1) q(\Delta)$. Hence:

$$E_1 = \log \frac{1}{Q - 1} - \log q(\Delta) \quad (7)$$

Equ. (5) yields $F = B L_1 \frac{1}{1 - \tau_1}$ and

$$F = B L_1 \frac{1}{1 - (Q - 1) q(\Delta)} \quad (8)$$

Because of $\gamma = \frac{1}{k_1} F E_1$ the equ.'s (7) and (8) combine to

$$\gamma = K B L_1 \frac{1}{1 - (Q-1)q(\Delta)} \left[\ln \frac{1}{Q-1} - \ln q(\Delta) \right] \quad (9)$$

For $\Delta = 0$, that is $q(\Delta) = 1$, equ. (9) becomes identical with equ. (2). Next, we compute

$$\frac{d\gamma}{d\Delta} = 2\gamma q(\Delta) \frac{1 - Qq(\Delta)}{1 - (Q-1)q(\Delta)} \left(\frac{Q-1}{1 - (Q-1)q(\Delta)} \left| \ln \frac{1}{Q-1} - \ln q(\Delta) \right| - \frac{1}{q(\Delta)} \right)$$

which, for $\Delta = 0$, turns into

$$\frac{d\gamma}{d\Delta} = \gamma^2 \frac{Q-1}{2-Q} [1 - (Q-1)C] \quad (10)$$

with γ and C as given by equ. (2). The conclusion is: if the true extinction ratio is 1:2(1 + Δ) with $\Delta > \Delta$, instead of the ratio 1:2 (as obtained with the test object), then the computed γ will be too small and should be replaced by $\gamma(1 + \epsilon)$. The "wave length error" is approximately

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \epsilon &= \Delta D \text{ with} \\ D &= 2 \frac{Q-1}{2-Q} [1 - (Q-1)C] \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (11)$$

D in equ. (11) has been tabulated in Table 2. The wave length error of γ is always smaller than the error Δ of the extinction ratio. It had been concluded before that Δ can be reduced to less than 2%. With well chosen wave lengths λ_1 and λ_2 Q can probably always be kept above 1.4. The maximum wave length error between relative values of γ would then be smaller than 1% [equ. (11) and Table 2].

It is worth noting—for it sheds some light on the relation between the two methods—that the new method applied to the area H of the test object ($B = H$) always leads to precisely the same result as the conventional method if this is used with λ_1 , the wave length with the lower extinction (the proof is easy and may be omitted). The new method in itself still has a smaller distributional error but to this is added the wave length error. An example (again omitting the computation) may illustrate this: let the distribution of extinctions in H be that of Fig. 4, I and let the mean extinction at λ_1 be 0.375. The conventional method would yield $\gamma_c = 0.36903 \frac{H}{k_1}$ with an error of -1.59%. If the

Table 2. For converting the total error Δ of the extinction ratio into the wave length error ϵ of the amount of dye as obtained by equ. (2). It is $\epsilon = \Delta D$.

Q	D	Q	D	Q	D	Q	D
1.0	0.000	1.3	0.415	1.6	0.701	1.9	0.932
1.1	0.165	1.4	0.519	1.7	0.783	2.0	1.000
1.2	0.299	1.5	0.614	1.8	0.860		

correct λ_2 were used (i.e. with $k_2 = 2 k_1$) γ as obtained by the new method would have an error of only -0.72% . However, determining λ_2 from the same area H it would be $\Delta_2 = 1.65\%$ which leads (with $Q = 1.4187$) to the wave length error -0.89% . The two errors add up as expected.

The test object had been selected as that object in the slide that contains an area H for which the dye-content can be measured with maximal accuracy by means of the conventional method. Applied to H the new method would have just the same, high, accuracy as the latter. But only the new method can, from H , proceed to all objects (including the whole test object) in the slide with but minor losses of accuracy.

VI. Conclusions.

The new method is not confined to "flat" objects. The theory remains valid even if the whole object should be out of focus, as long as it is entirely inside the divergent beam coming from (and leading to) the field B . The method can be applied equally well to squashes as to sections.

The conclusions arrived at in sections III-V add up to this: With certain precautions it should practically always be possible to keep the sum of the distributional, the stray light, and the wave length error below, and possibly much below, 4% . This total optical error will probably always make the computed γ too small (only the stray light error and Δ_1 might conceivably act in the opposite direction). By using B instead of the correct \bar{B} (cf. p. 352), and with $N.A. = 0.3$, a constant error of 1% in the opposite direction is induced. Altogether, as far as these errors go, the computed γ need not differ more, and will usually differ less, than 3% from the true value. If only relative values of γ are desired the maximum relative error would be the difference between the smallest and the largest error occurring in a sample of objects. This difference is likely to be considerably smaller than 3% . In a sample of similar nuclei it would probably be no more than a fraction of 1% .

The above errors are, of course, not the only ones and they need not even be the largest ones. There is, in the first place, the error which is caused by non-specific absorption. In most cases this will not amount to much but if highest accuracy is desired it may prove necessary to make measurements of the unstained as well as of the stained objects. Even so it may not always be possible to eliminate this error altogether. The effect of non-specific absorption on the computed γ depends on whether the responsible substance and our dye are closely associated or whether that substance merely surrounds the stained object. We will not go into this problem.

It seems that all remaining errors of any consequence which may affect the determination of the dye content are instrumental errors.

These can, at least in principle, be reduced to insignificance. To what extent this is practical depends largely on whether the object contains sufficient dye. That is the case with most Feulgen-stained nuclei of higher plants or animals. Causes of systematic errors are: a too large band width, insufficient spectral purity, non-uniform illumination of B^1 , non-uniform sensitivity of the phototube², non-linearity of its response. Since the method uses flux differences that are often rather small it requires a fairly high accuracy of the photometric readings. This is best achieved by a two beam arrangement with two phototubes. However, even a single beam arrangement (as usually employed for the conventional method) can yield a high accuracy if a sufficient number of repeated readings are averaged. The sequence of I_{λ_0} and I_{λ_1} readings should be chosen so as to eliminate a conceivable trend in the sensitivity of the photometer (e.g. fatigue of the phototube). Such a sequence would be $I_{11}, I_{10}, I_{10}, I_{11}, I_{21}, I_{20}, I_{20}, I_{21}$. This sequence could be repeated as often as necessary, each leading to another value γ (cf. Table 3). These replications would make it possible to calculate the sampling error of the mean γ per object.

The sensitivity of the galvanometer can be adjusted separately for λ_1 and λ_2 . The sensitivity, at λ_0 , would then be inversely proportional to I_{λ_0} and, therefore, to B . Whilst B as such does not affect γ (cf. Table 3), an unnecessarily large B would increase the sampling error of γ . For objects of noticeably different size, B (in other words, the aperture of the phototube) should be adjusted separately (cf. the subsequent paper, Fig. 1). Instead of measuring various areas B (in the plane of the object) we may measure the relative flux passing through the empty fields. This would partly compensate for any residual non-uniformity of the illumination or of the phototube sensitivity.

The new method is not restricted to microphotometric use. It can, for instance, be applied to measure the amount of dye in a section of stained tissue by placing the section in front of the entering slit of a spectrophotometer. B would be the area of the slit. (It would, of course, still be necessary first to determine λ_1 and λ_2 with a microspectrophotometer). This should be the most accurate method for determining K in equ. (2) by relating γ (as computed by equ. (2) for a given volume

¹ To project an image of the exit slit of the monochromator into the field of the object would not provide the best illumination. With a continuous light source such an image is never homochromatic. The KOEHLER illumination should be employed with the exit slit as light source. An iris diaphragm at the lens in front of the slit would serve as a stop for the illuminated field.

² Such non-uniformity can be rendered harmless by a lens system (behind the aperture which determines B) that projects the rear aperture of the microscope objective onto the photosensitive layer.

Table 3. Two determinations (with two replications each) of the amount γ of Feulgen-dye (in arbitrary units) in the same late prophase nucleus (onion root tip, viz. Carney 3:1, squash) but with different field area B (100 corresponding to a field diameter of about 22 μ).

B	$\lambda_1 = 4900 \text{ \AA}$						$\lambda_2 = 5140 \text{ \AA}$						$\frac{Q}{L_0/L_1}$	$\frac{C}{\text{from table I.}}$	$\frac{\gamma}{B L_1 C}$
	Reading of galvanometer			$\frac{T_1}{I_{11}/I_{10}}$	$\frac{L_1}{I - T_1}$	Reading of galvanometer			$\frac{T_2}{I_{21}/I_{20}}$	$\frac{L_2}{I - T_2}$					
	with nucl.	without nucl.	I_{10}			with nucl.	without nucl.	I_{20}							
100.0	75.6	←	90.0	0.8367	0.1633	69.2	←	91.2	0.7629	0.2371	1.452	1.449	23.7		
	75.0	→	90.0			69.8	→	91.0							
	150.6		180.0	139.0		182.2									
	76.0	←	90.8	68.2	←	90.4									
	74.8	→	88.0			68.0	→	90.5							
	150.8		178.8	0.8434	0.1566	136.2		180.9	0.7529	0.2471	1.578	1.299	20.3		
											Mean:	Mean:	22.0		
64.0	72.0	←	94.5	0.7621	0.2379	64.0	←	99.0	0.6455	0.3545	1.490	1.399	21.3		
	72.8	→	95.5			63.3	→	98.2							
	144.8		190.0	127.3		197.2									
	72.0	←	95.0	62.6	←	97.8									
	71.3	→	94.0			62.6	→	97.0							
	143.3		189.0	0.7582	0.2418	125.2		194.8	0.6427	0.3573	1.478	1.415	21.9		
											Mean:	Mean:	21.6		

of section) to a chemical determination of the amount of natural substance (e.g. DNA) in such a volume.

The detailed discussion of error sources in this paper should not be taken to indicate that the new method requires an unusual degree of instrumental perfection. On the contrary, even with a fairly simple set-up the method can be expected to yield, for all objects with a sufficient dye content, an accuracy substantially higher than that which the conventional method could achieve with particularly favorable cytological objects. The subsequent paper bears this out: Measurements of Feulgen-stained nuclei were obtained with an arrangement which was noticeably deficient in optical respects. Yet the dye contents showed a standard deviation of only 4.1%. And this in spite of the fact that these nuclei (from an onion root tip) were of quite different kinds (four interphases, four prophase, three pairs of telophase nuclei) most of which would have been poor material for the conventional method. The higher accuracy of the new method thus will often permit use of a small number of measured objects, which might compensate for the increased, though not excessive, labor required for single objects.

Compared with CASPERSSON's (1936, 1950, etc.) scanning techniques (which also overcome the limitation of the conventional method) the new method appears simpler in every respect. These techniques were, of course, primarily designed, and have so far been used, for measuring the U.V. absorption of natural substances. For such, our method could be used only if the ratio $k_2:k_1$ were the same for all objects. In the case of the combined nucleic acid-protein absorption, as met with in nuclei, this cannot generally be assumed. ORNSTEIN (1952) has suggested, besides the two-wave length method, still other approaches to the same end. The author doubts whether any existing or proposed method can match the accuracy of the two-wave length method.

The high accuracy of the latter, though for many purposes not needed, seems potentially very important as it greatly enlarges the realm of solvable problems. There is no lack of cytological questions which would merit whatever effort may be required to exploit fully the possible accuracy of the new method. This would, of course, make still more urgent, but would also facilitate, a careful investigation of the proportionality error.

Summary.

A new microphotometric method (mainly for the evaluation of microchemical color reactions) which uses measurements at two wave lengths (developed by ORNSTEIN and, independently, by the author) is presented in a form which greatly reduces the computational labor (for an illustration, see Table 3).

The method can be applied to any conceivable, sufficiently stained, cytological object (e.g. a Feulgen-stained metaphase in a squash or a section), as the shape of, and the dye distribution within, the object have only a very small effect on the result. It is concluded that the total of the distributional error, the stray light error (including effects of diffraction), and the "wave length error", can practically always be kept below, and often much below, 3% of the true dye content.

The method can be extended to irregular macroscopical objects.

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CYTOCHEMICAL STUDIES ON THE CHROMATIN ELIMINATION
IN SOLENOBIA (LEPIDOPTERA).

By

HANS RIS and RUTH KLEINFELD*.

With 10 figures in the text.

(Eingegangen am 15. August 1952.)

It is becoming increasingly evident that chromosomes are not static units with genes lined up like cars in a railroad train, but in the contrary highly variable not only in structure but also in size and chemical composition. Usually the changes in chromosomes are rather gradual and rarely is the exchange of materials visible in the microscope. The most striking case where relatively large amounts of material are shed by chromosomes is found in the eggs of some invertebrates, especially in Lepidoptera. This process was first described in detail by SEILER (1914, 1923) for several moths. Other Lepidoptera studied showed the same process (WAGNER 1894, DEDERER 1915, DONCASTER 1922, KAWAGUCHI 1928, FOGG 1930, FROLOWA 1935, NARBEL 1946). A similar elimination of chromosomal material was found in the maturation of the egg in Trichoptera (KLINGSTEDT 1931) and in the mite *Pediculopsis* (COOPER 1939). *Pediculopsis* is unique in that the elimination of material from chromosomes in early anaphase takes place not only in the maturation divisions, but also in several division cycles during cleavage.

SEILER (1914) showed that one was dealing here not with a loss of chromosomes or pieces of chromosomes as in *Ascaris* or in *Cecidomyidae* ("chromatin diminution") but with the elimination of some genetically inert material that apparently had become superfluous to the chromosome ("chromatin elimination"). The elimination therefore did not affect the genetic integrity of the chromosomes. This view was supported by the finding of BAUER (1933) that the eliminated material (in *Ephesia*) was Feulgen-negative and therefore did not contain desoxyribonucleic acid (DNA). The eliminated chromatin then consists of some basophilic material that is not DNA. The present study attempts to further identify the nature of the "elimination chromatin"

Materials and Methods.

We are greatly obliged to Professor J. SEILER (E.T.H., Zürich) who made the material used in this study available to us. Eggs of *Solenobia triquetrella* and

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Solenobia lichenella were fixed in hot Petrunkevitch and in alcohol-acetic acid (3:1) from $\frac{3}{4}$ to 2 hours after oviposition. Before imbedding in paraffin the chorion was removed (SEILER 1923). In these eggs all stages of the first maturation division could be found. For a study of the elimination chromatin the anaphase in side view was most suitable. Such figures can easily be obtained in cross sections through eggs fixed from 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours after oviposition. The following procedures were used:

Staining with methyl green-pyronin. Metaphases and anaphases of the first maturation division were stained according to the method of TAFT (1951). However we found it necessary to prolong differentiation up to 24 hours.

Feulgen reaction. Sections of eggs fixed in alcohol-acetic acid were hydrolyzed in N HCl at 60°C for 12 minutes and treated with Schiff's reagent for 1 hour. A control slide was stained without hydrolysis. After fixation with Petrunkevitch the control showed a diffuse staining which was absent if the slides had been extracted with 95% alcohol at 40°C for 24 hours.

For the demonstration of *pentose nucleic acid* (PNA) sections of eggs fixed in Petrunkevitch were incubated at 40°C for 2 hours in 0.015% crystalline *ribonuclease* (Worthington Biochem Lab) in distilled water ($\text{pH } 5$). A control slide was kept in distilled water at 40°C for 2 hours. The two slides were then stained back to back in 1% toluidine blue for 10 minutes. In addition to *ribonuclease* we also used *perchloric acid* according to ERICKSON et al. (1949) to remove pentose nucleic acids. Sections fixed in Petrunkevitch were treated with 10% perchloric acid at 5°C for 18 hours. Controls were kept in distilled water at 5°C for the same time. The slides were then stained back to back in 1% toluidine blue.

The presence of *proteins* was investigated with the *Millon reaction* (MIRSKY and POLLISTER 1946, POLLISTER and RIS 1947). Sections fixed in alcohol-acetic acid were treated with the sulfuric acid-Millon reagent for 10 minutes at 40°C , washed and mounted in Shillabers immersion oil. The first maturation anaphase was then photographed at a wavelength of 3640 \AA using a mercury vapor arc (AH 4) with a Corning glass filter No. 5860, quartz condenser and B & L apochromat 2 mm. N. A. 1.3. The slide was then returned to the sulfuric acid-Millon reagent for 20 minutes at 40°C after which time the 1% sodium nitrite was added. After 10 minutes the slide was washed in distilled water and mounted in Shillabers immersion oil. The same place on the slide was then again photographed at 3640 \AA .

The *periodic acid-Schiff reaction* (HOTCHKISS 1948) was used for the demonstration of *polysaccharides*. Sections were treated with the periodic acid solution for 5 minutes at room temperature. A control slide was kept for the same time in distilled water. The slides were then treated back to back with the reducing rinse and Schiff's reagent.

Results.

The results are shown in Figs. 1—10. Fig. 1 represents an anaphase treated with the Feulgen reaction. Only the chromosomes are stained, the elimination plate is colorless and therefore does not contain any demonstrable DNA. In Fig. 2 we see the same cell with phase contrast. The elimination plate is well visible in the equatorial plane.

After staining with methyl green-pyronin the anaphase chromosomes appear bluish-purple and the eliminated material bright red. The spindle and especially the chromosomal fibers are stained with pyronin, but much less intensely. In metaphase the tetrads are stained uniformly

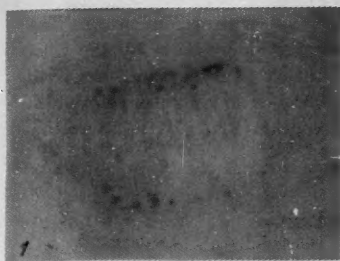


Fig. 1. *Solenobia lichenella*, first maturation division anaphase. Fixation alcohol-acetic acid, 2 hours after oviposition. Feulgen. Spencer 1.8 mm. Wratten filter No. 74 (dark green). About 2000 \times .

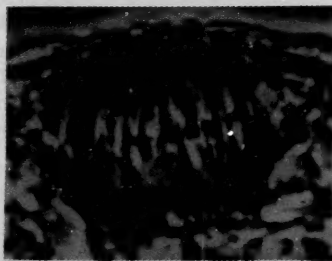


Fig. 2. Same cell as Fig. 1. Spencer 1.8 mm dark medium phase contrast. About 2000 \times .



Fig. 3. *Solenobia triquetrella*, first maturation division anaphase. Fixation Petrunkevitch. Control for Hotchkiss periodic acid-Schiff test. B & L 2 mm. N.A. 1.3 Wratten filter No. 74 (dark green). About 2000 \times .

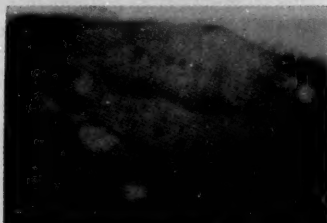


Fig. 4. Same as Fig. 3, but treated with periodic acid.

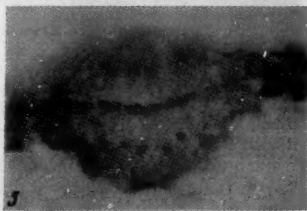


Fig. 5. *Solenobia triquetrella*, first maturation division anaphase. Fixation Petrunkevitch, 1 1/2 hour after oviposition. Ribonuclease control, stained in toluidine blue. B & L 2 mm. N.A. 1.3, Wratten filter No. 22 (orange). About 2000 \times .

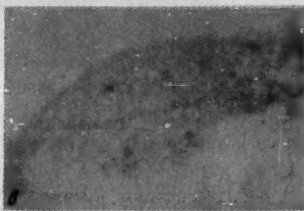


Fig. 6. Same as Fig. 5, but digested with ribonuclease.

bluish-purple and the spindle faintly pink. The intense staining with pyronin suggests the presence of PNA in the eliminated material. Indeed the experiments with ribonuclease and perchloric acid demonstrate that PNA is present and is mainly responsible for the staining properties of the elimination plate. Figs. 5 and 6 show first maturation

spindles in the control and after digestion with ribonuclease. The staining of the chromosomes is not changed appreciably by the ribonuclease treatment but the basophily of the elimination plate is removed with ribonuclease. The spindle body and the cytoplasm also stain much less than in the control and therefore contain PNA. It is interesting

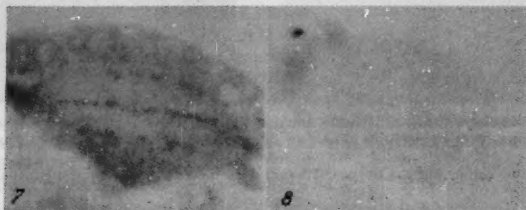


Fig. 7. *Solenobia triquetrella*. First maturation division anaphase. Fixation Petrunkevitch. Control for perchloric acid extraction. Stained in toluidine blue. B & L 2 mm, N. A. 1.3. Wratten filter No. 22.

Fig. 8. Same as Fig. 7, but extracted with perchloric acid at 5°C.

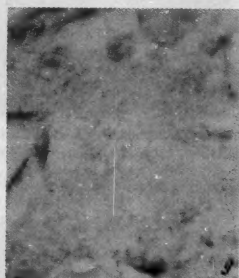


Fig. 9. *Solenobia lichenella*, first maturation division anaphase. Millon reaction, photographed before color developed. Mercury vapor arc (AH 4), Corning glass filter No. 5860, quartz condenser. B & L 2 mm, N. A. 1.3.

Fig. 10. Same cell as Fig. 9, after development of color.

to note that the region of the spindle between the daughter plates stains less than the polar regions of the spindle. This suggests that the chromosomal fibers are especially rich in PNA. The slides treated with perchloric acid (Figs. 7 and 8) gave results identical to the ribonuclease experiments.

The ribonuclease, while reducing the staining, had still left some material that is quite refractile and stains slightly with toluidine blue. The Millon reaction shows that this residual material is protein. Since the sulfuric acid-Millon after alcohol-acetic acid fixation dissolves histones, we are dealing here with a nonhistone type protein. Figs. 9 and 10 show an anaphase of the first maturation division treated with the sulfuric acid-Millon before and after the color was developed.

Fig. 3 shows the control and Fig. 4 the first maturation spindle treated with periodic acid. At first sight the elimination chromatin seems to give a positive reaction. A careful study, however, shows that the elimination chromatin is not stained. The positive reaction is due to small granules that lie in the midplane of the spindle around the eliminated material. Some of these granules are clearly visible in Fig. 4 and quite different from the elimination plate as seen in Figs. 2, 5 and 7. Similar granules are found in the cytoplasm outside the spindle. In addition the cytoplasm gives a rather strong diffuse reaction. The spindle body is only slightly stained and certainly contains much less of the reacting substances than the cytoplasm. A very intense reaction is given by the yolk platelets which appear to be rich in polysaccharides as well as proteins.

From these experiments it can be concluded that the material eliminated from the chromosomes in the first maturation division of *Solenobia* consists mainly of PNA and proteins.

Discussion.

1. Chromosomal origin.

Before we can discuss the possible significance of the "elimination chromatin"¹ it is necessary to know its origin.

The similarity to the so-called "cell plate", or "midbodies" of the spindle has made some investigators believe that the material originates from the spindle and represents thickenings of the spindle fibers (PLATNER 1888, HENKING 1892, DEDERER 1915). GOLDSCHMIDT (1923) thought that material from the "nuclear network" formed an achromatic sheath around the chromosome which was shed in anaphase.

SEILER (1914) gave the first detailed description of the process in several lepidopteran eggs and concluded that some, possibly superfluous, material is given off by the chromosomes ("chromatin elimination"). Most later investigators agreed with SEILER that the material comes from the chromosomes and not from the spindle, for the following reasons:

a) In early anaphase the eliminated material appears between the separating chromosomes. The elimination plate therefore consists of distinct bodies of the same number and shape as the chromosomes. This is especially clear where the chromosomes are relatively large and small in number (*Pediculopsis*, COOPER 1939).

b) The amount of material eliminated is proportional to the difference in volume of chromosomes before and after elimination. Before

¹ The term „chromatin“ is used here in the sense of BOVERI and of BÉLAŠ and has purely morphogenetic implications to denote material that is going to or has formed part of the chromosome.

the elimination the size of the chromosomes is very variable, but in anaphase they show the relative size characteristic for the species and are similar in size to the chromosomes in spermatocytes (SEILER 1914). In *Ephestia*, according to FOGG (1930), the chromosomes increase in volume during prometaphase and reach again the original size after the process of elimination.

These observations leave no doubt that the "elimination chromatin" originates from the chromosomes.

2. The process of elimination.

In most cases the material is shed from the chromosomes in early anaphase. Occasionally, however, chromosomes do not eliminate until late in anaphase, or they may not eliminate at all. The amount of material given off varies greatly from cell to cell and also from chromosome to chromosome. The eliminated substance appears first between the chromosomes when they move apart and is often visibly double, indicating that each daughter chromosome contributes its part. Where four chromatids are visible in the first meiotic division the eliminated material is often clearly four-partite, being made up of the material contributed by the four chromatids (Fig. 2) (cf. SEILER 1914 and 1923).

A different mode of elaboration was described by SCHÄFFER (1944) in *Solenobia* and FOGG (1930) in *Ephestia*. These authors held that the elimination chromatin first forms an outer layer or pellicle around the metaphase chromosome. When the daughter chromosomes move apart they are said to leave the empty envelope behind. We have found no evidence for any segregation of a differently staining pellicle around the metaphase chromosome and can only confirm the description of the process given by SEILER (1914, 1923). The eliminated material may often look like a vesicle but we think this appearance is caused by its four-partite structure (Fig. 2).

3. Chemical composition of the elimination chromatin.

As already reported by BAUER (1933), FROLOWA (1935), COOPER (1939), SCHÄFFER (1944) and NARBEL (1946) the eliminated material is Feulgen-negative and therefore cannot contain desoxyribonucleic acid in any appreciable amounts. We have found that it also does not contain any polysaccharides that give a positive Hotchkiss test. However, a positive Millon reaction shows the presence of protein. It also contains a basophilic substance that disappears in cold perchloric acid and is digested by ribonuclease. We conclude that the elimination chromatin consists mainly of ribonucleoprotein.

JACOBSON and WEBB (1952) have recently described the appearance of ribonucleoprotein granules between the separating chromosomes in

anaphase of cells in tissue culture grown from various tissues of mouse and chick. There is, however, no direct evidence for the chromosomal origin of this material and it remains undecided whether this phenomenon is related to the chromatin elimination discussed here. But it calls attention to the possibility that some kind of elimination of chromosome material in anaphase may be more widespread than is now thought.

4. Significance of the elimination process.

The possible function of the chromatin elimination was discussed by SEILER (1914) and also by BAUER (1933). They agree in general that it most likely represents a shedding in a rapid and wholesale fashion of material that has become superfluous for the chromosome. The great variability in the amount of material eliminated makes it unlikely that it has any important functions in the egg. During the growth of the egg the chromosomes show an especially great increase in volume. It is not surprising that the first division occurring after this growth should show in some cases a visible removal of superfluous material.

The observation that this material removed from chromosomes is mainly ribonucleoprotein fits into the general picture that has developed by the recent work on chromosome chemistry. Changes in volume and composition of chromosomes are mainly due to changes in proteins and ribonucleoproteins (MIRSKY and RIS, 1949). Thus the increase in size of the chromosomes during the growth of the egg is essentially the result of an increase in the ribonucleoprotein fraction. When the chromosomes are reduced to the small size typical for the maturation divisions they lose most of their ribonucleoprotein and this can be done apparently on a submicroscopic level or in microscopically visible chunks, as in the cases discussed here.

Is such a release of ribonucleoprotein in anaphase restricted to these few cases or is it of more general, though less visible, occurrence? The observations of JACOBSON and WEBB (1952) on cells in tissue culture might suggest this. Another phenomenon comes to mind here that possibly falls into this category. In many cells, especially in Hemiptera and Homoptera, the chromosomes at anaphase are connected by intensely basophilic material, the so-called interzonal fibers (SCHRADER 1932, 1944). The amount of material varies a great deal from organism to organism even in different cells of the same species. Apparently it comes from the chromosomes and its basophily and negative Feulgen reaction suggest the presence of PNA. Interzonal fibers and elimination chromatin have much in common, also in the way they are formed. The elimination figure in early anaphase looks much like interzonal fibers, the chromosomes remaining attached for some time to the central mass

of eliminated material through fibrous connections. Interzonal fibers might differ mainly by having a lower viscosity or being given off continuously during anaphase instead of during the early part alone.

The midbodies of the spindle that are found in late anaphase of many cells (cf. SCHRADER 1944) have sometimes been identified with the elimination chromatin. SEILER (1914) who discussed this question in detail showed clearly that the time and mode of formation of the midbodies is quite different. In the abortive first spermatocyte division of the honey bee midbodies appear even though no nuclear division has taken place and they obviously could not have been derived from the chromosomes. However, the possibility still remains that some midbodies originate in relation to interzonal fibers (SCHRADER 1944) and thus may have chromosomal origin even though they appear only in late anaphase. This would seem to be true for large midbodies such as those described for the second maturation anaphase in the rat ovum (ODOR and BLANDAU 1951).

Summary.

The chemical nature of the elimination chromatin in the first maturation division of *Solenobia* was investigated with the Feulgen reaction, by staining with methyl green-pyronin, with toluidine blue before and after treatment with ribonuclease and cold perchloric acid, with the Hotchkiss periodic acid-Schiff test, and the Millon reaction.

The Feulgen reaction and Hotchkiss test for polysaccharides turned out to be negative while the tests for ribonucleic acid and protein were positive. The elimination chromatin is therefore essentially ribonucleoprotein.

The elimination process is considered to be one way by which chromosomes rich in ribonucleoprotein typically present in metabolically active cells, are stripping themselves from material that may have become superfluous. Such visible shedding of material from chromosomes, though less spectacular than in the maturation division of eggs in Lepidoptera and few other insects, may be more common than is generally thought and it is suggested that the interzonal fibers found in many mitoses fall into this category.

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CYTOGENETICS OF THE HYBRID
GILIA MILLEFOLIATA × *ACHILLEAEFOLIA*.

I. VARIATIONS IN MEIOSIS AND POLYPLOIDY RATE
AS AFFECTED BY NUTRITIONAL AND GENETIC CONDITIONS.

By

VERNE GRANT.

With 38 figures in the text.

(Eingegangen am 2. August/20. September 1952.)

Introduction.

The sterile hybrid between *Gilia millefoliata* and *G. achilleaeifolia*, from which tetraploid F_2 s have spontaneously arisen on two occasions, has yielded information along several lines. A study of this hybrid reveals some of the cytological and environmental conditions under which natural and garden polyploids may be expected to arise. Analysis of segregation in the allotetraploid derivatives contributes to our understanding of the genetic basis of the differences between the parental species. The allotetraploid derived from this cross, finally, provides information concerning the origin and constitution of a natural occurring tetraploid species of *Gilia* (*G. clivorum*). The latter problem is being taken up elsewhere (GRANT, in press), while the second problem is currently under investigation. The purpose of this paper is to describe variations in meiosis in this hybrid as correlated on the one hand with differences in the frequency of appearance of polyploids (polyploidy rate, as defined in a subsequent paragraph), and on the other hand with differences in environmental conditions.

Materials and Methods.

Gilia millefoliata FISCH. et MEY. and *G. achilleaeifolia* BENTH. are two species of annual flowering-plants native to coastal California. They belong in the same section of the genus (sect. *Eugilia*), which is in turn a member of the family *Polemoniaceae*. *Gilia millefoliata* is a prostrate maritime plant with self-pollinating flowers which inhabits sand dunes along the cool and cloudy coast line of northern California and southern Oregon (Fig. 1). The more erect and larger flowered *Gilia achilleaeifolia* (Fig. 1) occurs on open sunny hillsides and in canyons of the South Coast Range from San Francisco Bay to Santa Barbara County, California. This species is self-compatible but more or less outcrossed by bees.

The strains used in this study were grown from seeds collected in the wild. The strain of *Gilia millefoliata* came from Point Reyes Peninsula north of San Francisco Bay. Specimens of this plant have been deposited in several California herbaria under the author's collection numbers 7909 and 8419. Four strains of *Gilia achilleaeifolia* were used, which can similarly be identified by reference to the collection numbers. They are: (1) San Luis Obispo, No. 8557; (2) Moraga Canyon, Contra Costa County, No. 8505; (3) Kings Mt., San Mateo County, No. 8903; and (4) Corte Madera Ridge, Marin County, No. 8878. [The Kings Mt. and Corte Madera strains actually belong to the entity known as *Gilia multicaulis*, which is, however, conspecific with *G. achilleaeifolia* (GRANT, unpublished).]

The seeds were sown in the middle of winter in a well aerated seed bed consisting of a mixture of Georgia peat, clean potting soil and sponge rock. Germination was prompt, and as soon as the seedlings became large enough to prick out, they were transferred to 2" pots. They were moved once more in early spring, either to the experimental field or to 6" pots of good soil in the greenhouse. Given plenty of water, the plants bloomed throughout the spring and early summer.

The plants used as female parents were enclosed in breeding cages in the greenhouse and were emasculated daily. Pollinations were made preferably in the early forenoon before the bees had robbed the male parents in the experimental field of their daily production of pollen. Colored yarns tied to the peduncles served to identify the different crosses. Records were kept of the number of flowers pollinated in each combination, the number of capsules and seeds formed, and the number of F_1 hybrids obtained.

Pollen fertility was estimated from lactophenol mounts of pollen grains stained with aniline blue. The plump, well-stained grains were counted as good, and the empty shrivelled grains as inviable.

Satisfactory cytological preparations were obtained by using carmine smears. Floral buds were fixed at about noon on warm days in 3:1 ethanol-propionic acid, and later stored in 70% ethanol. The pollen mother cells were stained in propiono-carmine and counterstained with methyl green. The preparations were made permanent by the infiltration of euparal under the cover slip in the presence of alcohol vapor, as recommended by BRADLEY (1948). Acetic acid, as normally used in aceto-carmine smears causes a darkening of the cytoplasm in *Gilia*, but this difficulty is remedied by the substitution of propionic acid in both fixative and stain.

Meiotic figures were drawn at bench level with a camera lucida. The scale is indicated in Figs. 2-37 by the double arrow, which measures 10 microns. In drawings of first metaphase cells, bivalents are shown black, univalents are shown in outline, and multivalents are stippled. Metaphase and anaphase chromosomes have frequently been spread apart slightly in drawing.

Crossability.

Gilia millefoliata crosses readily with *G. achilleaeifolia* from San Luis Obispo. Fifteen flowers of *millefoliata* crossed by *achilleaeifolia* yielded 215 seeds and scores of hybrids. *Achilleaeifolia* flowers crossed to *millefoliata* pollen, however, produced no seeds. This reciprocal difference is correlated with a difference in the length of the style, which is long in *achilleaeifolia* and short in *millefoliata*.

Cross-pollinations between *millefoliata* and the three other strains of *achilleaeifolia* yielded only abortive seeds, though from 10 to 30 flowers

were pollinated in each combination. Marked inter-strain differences thus exist with in *Gilia achilleaeifolia* in respect to compatibility with *G. millefoliata*.

Meiosis.

The Parents.

Gilia millefoliata from Point Reyes Peninsula has normal meiosis, with 9 bivalents at metaphase I. Chiasma frequency is relatively high



FIG. 1A.

for the genus *Gilia*, being on the average 2.3 chiasmata per bivalent at diakinesis and 1.8 at first metaphase (Figs. 2—4; Table 1). Separation of the chromosomes at anaphase is regular. An anaphase II cell (Fig. 5)

Table 1. Chiasma frequency in *Gilia millefoliata*, *G. achilleaeifolia*, and their F_1 hybrid.

Plant	Mean no. chiasmata per bivalent for given no. cells	
	Diakinesis	Metaphase I
<i>G. millefoliata</i> . . .	2.30 (11)	1.85 (54)
F_1 (1951 culture) . .	1.56 (4)	1.17 (55)
<i>G. achilleaeifolia</i> . .		1.16 (58)

shows at each pole 3 long chromosomes with median or submedian centromeres, 5 medium-long chromosomes with subterminal centromeres, and 1 short chromosome with median centromere. The course of

meiosis remains perfectly normal in this strain whether the plants are growing in rich soil or in poor sand; the significance of this observation will become apparent shortly.

All four strains of *Gilia achilleaeifolia* are likewise diploid with 9 chromosome pairs and normal meiosis (Fig. 6). The San Luis Obispo strain has an average of 1.16 chiasmata per bivalent at first metaphase (Table 1). One of the bivalents is characteristically somewhat attenuated at metaphase I, as shown in Figs. 6 and 7. Meiosis in this strain, as in *G. millefoliata*, is not appreciably affected by growth of the plants in poor sand.

The 1949 F₁s.

The cross between *millefoliata* from Point Reyes and *achilleaeifolia* from San Luis Obispo was made twice and the F₁ hybrids were grown in two different years, 1949 and 1951. The 1949 hybrids were

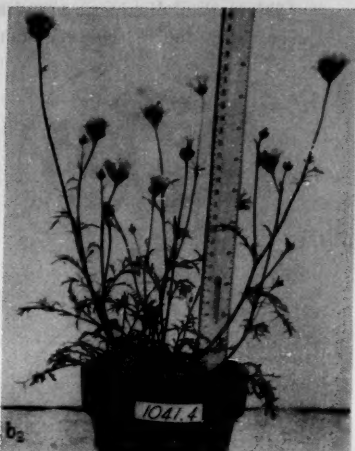
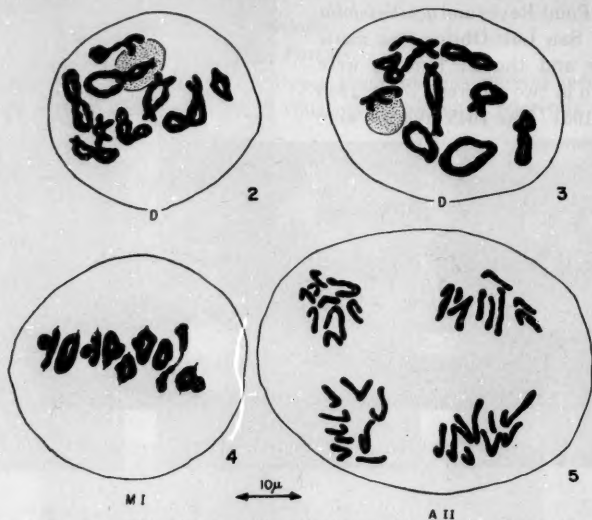


Fig. 1 B.

Fig. 1 A and B. a *Gilia millefoliata* from Point Reyes, b *G. achilleaeifolia* from San Luis Obispo, and c their allotetraploid. Plants grown at Stanford.

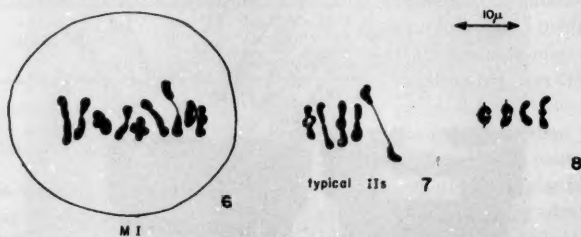
grown in pure sand in 2" pots on an open bench in Berkeley, California. There were 16 vigorous but somewhat stunted plants in this culture. Bud fixations were made from most of the plants at random.

The stage of diakinesis was virtually non-existent in the preparations, presumably due to the very short duration of this stage in the living



Figs. 2—5. Meiosis in *Gilia millefoliata*. Fig. 2. Diakinesis, 24 chiasmata. Fig. 3. Diakinesis, 19 chiasmata. Fig. 4. Metaphase I. Fig. 5. Anaphase II.

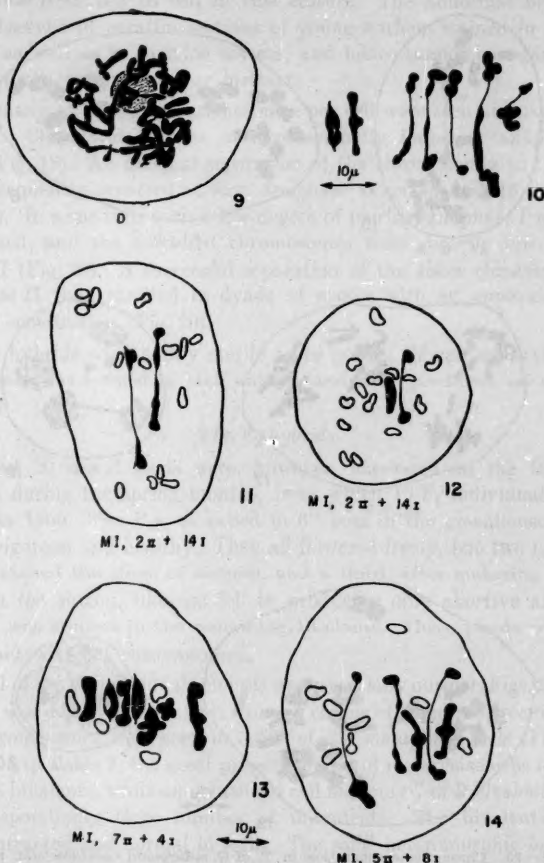
buds. Only four diakinesis cells could be found in 26 preparations of metaphase I and pachytene. The diakinesis figures, when found, moreover, were completely unanalyzable, as seen in Fig. 9.



Figs. 6—8. Meiosis in *Gilia achilleaeifolia* from San Luis Obispo. Fig. 6. Metaphase I. Fig. 7. Several characteristic bivalents from one cell. Fig. 8. Stages in the separation of a ring bivalent as seen in different cells.

There was no clear distinction between metaphase I and anaphase I. The cells emerged out of late prophase with the chromosomes mostly unpaired and scattered throughout the cytoplasm, and they entered the second division in much the same condition. So far as most of the chro-

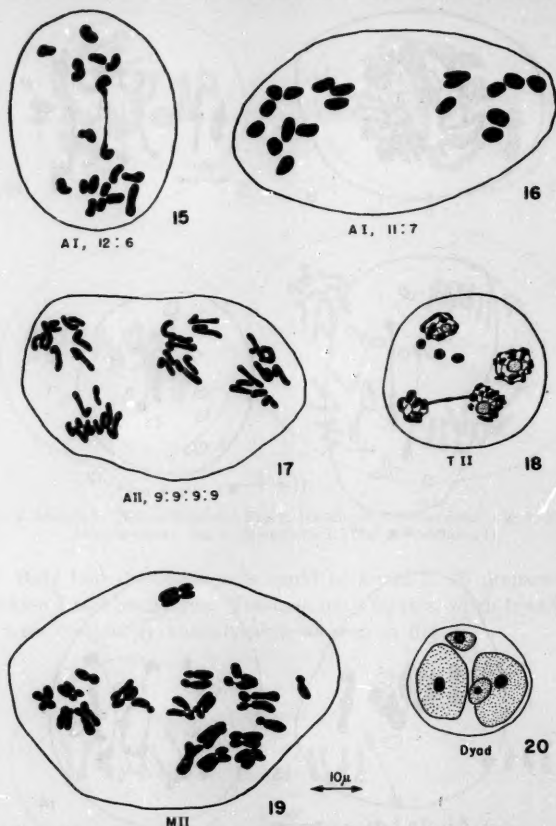
mosomes were concerned, there did not seem to be a definite metaphase plate or spindle mechanism.



Figs. 9—14. Chromosome pairing in F_1 of *G. millefoliata* × *achilleaeifolia*, growing in sand, 1949. Fig. 9. Diakinesis: a stage rarely encountered in this culture and then unanalyzable. Fig. 10. Various types of bivalents found in this hybrid: the two on the left are normal in appearance, while those on the right are attenuated and heteromorphic. From different cells. Fig. 11. Metaphase with 2 bivalents, one of which is attenuated, and 14 scattered univalents. Fig. 12. Metaphase with 2 normal appearing bivalents plus 14 scattered univalents. Fig. 13. Exceptional metaphase with 7 bivalents. Fig. 14. Metaphase with 2 normal bivalents, 3 attenuated bivalents, and 8 univalents.

The number of bivalents per cell ranged from 0 to 8 and averaged 2.6 for a total of 170 cells. On the basis of general appearance, two types

of bivalents could be distinguished in the dividing cells. Some of the paired chromosomes were well contracted and normal in form; others



Figs. 15—20. Chromosome separation in F_1 of *G. millefolium* \times *achilleaeifolia*, growing in sand, 1949. Fig. 15. Early anaphase I with one bivalent still unseparated: 10 chromosomes have already drifted to one pole and 5 to the other, and at the end of this stage there is apt to be a 12:6 distribution. Fig. 16. Anaphase I with 11:7 distribution. Fig. 17. Anaphase II with 9:9:9:9 distribution. Fig. 18. Telophase II with a chromatid bridge and 3 micronuclei. Fig. 19. Metaphase II with chromosomes still scattered from the first division. If the sister chromatids are successfully separated to two poles at anaphase II, two diploid gametes will result. Fig. 20. Sporad with 2 approximately diploid microspores plus 2 micronuclei.

were indefinite in shape and joined together by long-drawn chromatin strands (Fig. 10). Some of the abnormal bivalents were obviously the

result of pairing between unequal chromosomes, while all of them had a stretched or attenuated appearance. Figs. 11 to 14 show some of the variations from cell to cell in this culture. The abnormal bivalents were observed in paraffin sections of young anthers stained in crystal violet, as well as in carmine smears, and hence cannot be regarded as special artifacts of the smear method.

As many as 4 lagging chromosomes per cell were seen at anaphase I and II. Chromatid bridges were occasionally found at anaphase I or II (Fig. 18). An unequal separation of the chromosomes to the two poles frequently occurred at first anaphase (Figs. 15 and 16, but see also 17). In some cells with a low degree of pairing, anaphase I was not completed, and the scattered chromosomes went directly into metaphase II (Fig. 19). A successful separation of the sister chromatids at anaphase II then resulted in dyads of spores with an approximately diploid constitution (Fig. 20).

The hybrids were highly sterile as to pollen, though an occasional good grain was formed in each anther, and they produced no diploid progeny.

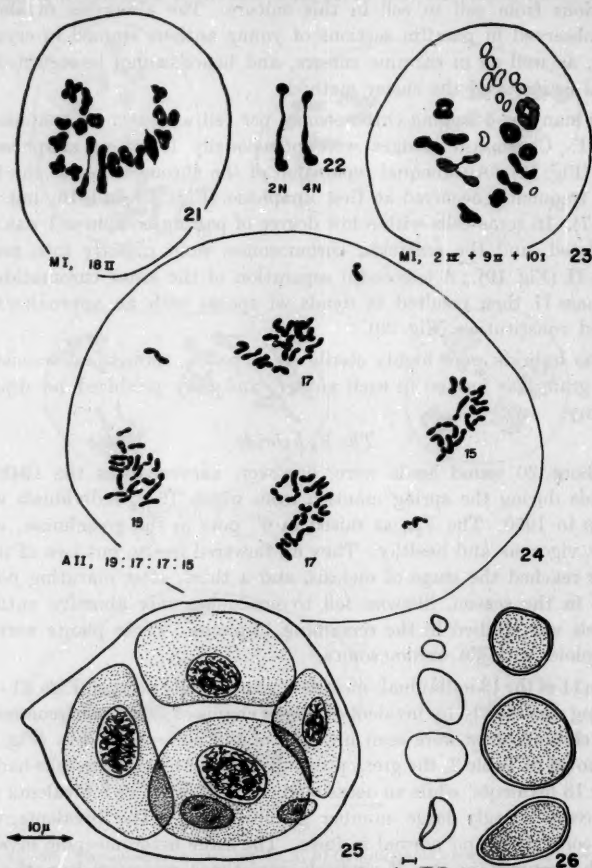
The F₂ hybrids.

About 20 sound seeds were, however, harvested on the 1949 F₁ hybrids during the spring months, from which 16 F₂ individuals were grown in 1950. The F₂s, as raised in 6" pots in the greenhouse, were fairly vigorous and healthy. They all flowered freely, but two of them never reached the stage of meiosis, and a third, after maturing pollen early in the season, likewise fell to producing only abortive anthers. Meiosis was studied in the remaining 13 plants. These plants were all tetraploid with 36 chromosomes.

In 11 of the 13 individuals meiosis was essentially normal (Figs. 21-24). Pairing was mostly by bivalents, though chains of 3 and more commonly of 4 chromosomes were seen in 3.4% of the metaphase cells (Fig. 23). As shown in Table 2, the great preponderance of metaphase cells had 16, 17 or 18 bivalents, while an occasional cell had only 7 or 9 bivalents with a correspondingly large number of univalents. The bivalents were well contracted and normal in form. The same heteromorphic bivalent which occurred in the F₁ hybrids sometimes reappeared in the F₂s (Fig. 22).

Lagging of the univalents at anaphase occurred commonly. Up to 4 lagging chromosomes per cell were found in anaphase I cells, and one or more such laggards were present in 54% of the cells in this stage. The proportion of cells with lagging chromosomes increased to 91% at anaphase II. Micronuclei were observed in 24% of the tetrads. Chromatid bridges were seen in a few cells at anaphase.

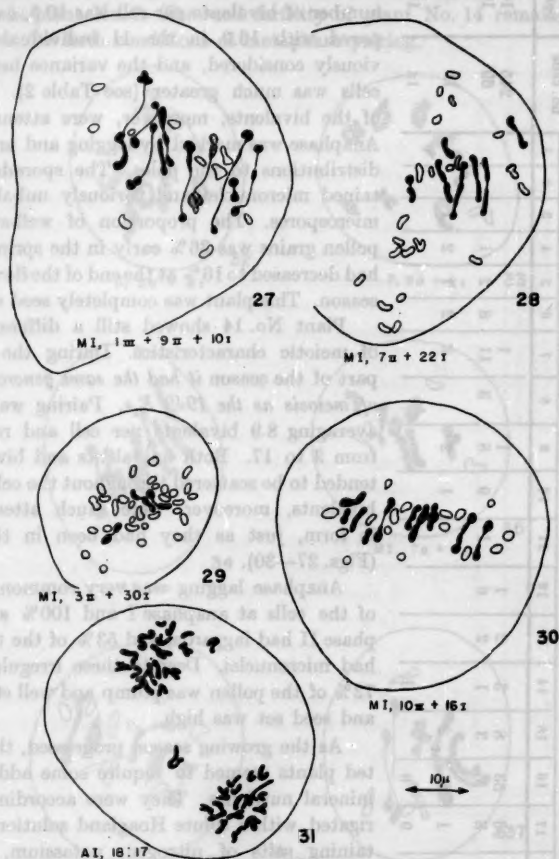
There was a great deal of variation in the size, shape and staining properties of the pollen grains produced in any one anther (Fig. 26).



Figs. 21—26. Meiosis in the tetraploid F_2 of *G. millefoliata* \times *achilleaeifolia*. Fig. 21. Metaphase with 18 bivalents. Fig. 22. The same heteromorphic bivalent in the diploid F_1 and the allotetraploid F_2 . Fig. 23. Metaphase with 2 quadrivalents, 9 bivalents, and 10 univalents. Fig. 24. Anaphase II with 19, 17, 17, and 15 chromosomes at the four poles, plus 4 lagging chromosomes. This figure probably resulted from a 19:17 distribution in anaphase I followed by lagging in division II. Fig. 25. Tetrad with extra micronuclei. Fig. 26. Variation in size and shape of good (right) and bad (left) pollen grains in one anther.

The proportion of plump well-stained grains ranged from 28% to 96% and averaged about 60% in the 11 F_2 individuals with fairly regular

meiosis. Ten of these plants were quite fertile as to seeds, whereas the eleventh, an individual with 30% well-stained pollen, set no seeds.



Figs. 27—31. Meiosis in plant No. 14 of *F.* *G. millefoliata* × *achilleaeifolia*. Fig. 27. Metaphase with attenuated and heteromorphic bivalents, plus a chain of three, and numerous univalents. Not all 36 chromosomes shown: many cells like this were impossible to analyze completely. Fig. 28. Metaphase with 7 bivalents plus 22 scattered univalents. Fig. 29. Metaphase with 3 bivalents plus 30 univalents. Fig. 30. Metaphase with 10 normal appearing bivalents plus 16 univalents. Fig. 31. Anaphase I with 18 chromosomes at one pole, 17 at the other, and 1 lagging chromosome.

Two of the 13 F_2 plants studied behaved differently from the others. Plant No. 7 differed from the preceding 11 individuals in both the

Table 2. The number of bivalents per cell in different tetraploid F_2 individuals of *Gilia millefoliata* \times *achilleaefolia* ($n = 19$).

Individual	No. cells with a given no. bivalents																		Total no. cells	Mean no. bivalents per cell
	18	17	16	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
11 plants pooled	80	96	53	8	3	2	1			1									245	16.9
Plant No. 7	1	8	5	3	1	2	6			8	3	1							69	10.5
Plant No. 14 before adding nutrient.									9											
Plant No. 14 after adding nutrient.		1	1	2				1		2		2	2	1	2	1			15	8.9
		9	8		1														18	16.4

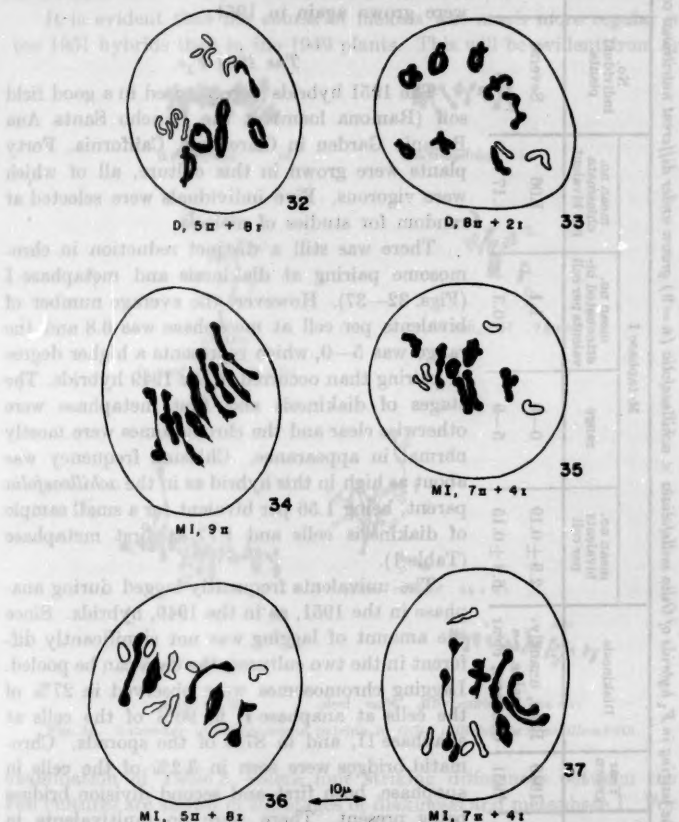
degree and uniformity of bivalent pairing and is therefore discussed separately. The average number of bivalents per cell was 10.5, as compared with 16.9 in the 11 individuals previously considered, and the variance between cells was much greater (see Table 2). Some of the bivalents, moreover, were attenuated. Anaphase was marked by lagging and unequal distributions to the poles. The sporads contained micronuclei and variously unbalanced microspores. The proportion of well-stained pollen grains was 36% early in the spring and had decreased to 16% at the end of the flowering season. This plant was completely seed sterile.

Plant No. 14 showed still a different set of meiotic characteristics. During the early part of the season it had the same general type of meiosis as the 1949 F_2 s. Pairing was low, averaging 8.9 bivalents per cell and ranging from 3 to 17. Both univalents and bivalents tended to be scattered throughout the cell. The bivalents, moreover, were much attenuated in form, just as they had been in the F_1 s (Figs. 27-30).

Anaphase lagging was very common. 78% of the cells at anaphase I and 100% at anaphase II had laggards, and 53% of the tetrads had micronuclei. Despite these irregularities, 72% of the pollen was plump and well stained, and seed set was high.

As the growing season progressed, the potted plants seemed to require some additional mineral nutrients. They were accordingly irrigated with a dilute Hoagland solution, containing salts of nitrogen, potassium, phosphorus and other elements. Meiosis was re-examined in plant No. 14 just a day or two after the addition of the nutrients and a remarkable transformation was found. Meiosis had now become quite similar to that in the 11 sister F_2 s. The average number of bivalents per cell was 16.4 and the range was 14-17 (Table 2). The chromosomes were well oriented on the

metaphase plate instead of scattered over the entire cell (Fig. 38). A similar transformation after the addition of nutrient solution did not occur in plant No. 7. The seed fertility of plant No. 14 remained the same under both conditions of metaphase pairing.



Figs. 32—37. Chromosome pairing in F_1 of *G. millefoliata* × *achilleaeifolia*, growing in soil, 1951. Fig. 32. Diakinesis with 5 bivalents plus 8 univalents. Fig. 33. Prometaphase with 8 bivalents plus 2 univalents. Fig. 34. Metaphase with 9 bivalents. Fig. 35. Metaphase with 7 bivalents plus 4 univalents. Fig. 36. Metaphase with 5 bivalents plus 8 univalents. Fig. 37. Exceptional metaphase with some attenuated bivalents.

The impossibility of accounting for the meiotic behavior of plant No. 14 solely in terms of chromosome homology and the mechanics of pairing manifested the need for a further analysis of meiosis in the F_1 s.

Table 3. Chromosome pairing in F_1 hybrids of *Gilia millefoliata* \times *achilleaeifolia* ($n=9$) grown under different nutritional conditions.

Soil condition	Year grown	Diakinesis	Metaphase I				No. individual plants	No. cells
			mean no. bivalents per cell	range	mean no. attenuated bivalents per cell	mean no. chromosomes per bivalent		
2" pots, sand	1949	Rare, unanalyzable	2.9 ± 0.19	0-6	1.1	1.06	Several	55
Field plot, loam	1951	Common, clear	6.8 ± 0.15	5-9	0.3	1.17	5	55

To what extent would chromosome pairing respond in the F_1 hybrids, as it had in this F_2 plant, to an improvement in the nutritional level? The cross was accordingly repeated and the F_1 hybrids were grown again in 1951.

The 1951 F_1 s.

The 1951 hybrids were planted in a good field soil (Ramona loam) at the Rancho Santa Ana Botanic Garden in Claremont, California. Forty plants were grown in this culture, all of which were vigorous. Five individuals were selected at random for studies of meiosis.

There was still a distinct reduction in chromosome pairing at diakinesis and metaphase I (Figs. 32-37). However, the average number of bivalents per cell at metaphase was 6.8 and the range was 5-9, which represents a higher degree of pairing than occurred in the 1949 hybrids. The stages of diakinesis and first metaphase were otherwise clear and the chromosomes were mostly normal in appearance. Chiasma frequency was about as high in this hybrid as in the *achilleaeifolia* parent, being 1.56 per bivalent for a small sample of diakinesis cells and 1.17 at first metaphase (Table 1).

The univalents frequently lagged during anaphase in the 1951, as in the 1949, hybrids. Since the amount of lagging was not significantly different in the two cultures, the data can be pooled. Lagging chromosomes were observed in 27% of the cells at anaphase I, in 96% of the cells at anaphase II, and in 87% of the sporads. Chromatid bridges were seen in 3.2% of the cells in anaphase, both first and second division bridges being present. There were no multivalents in either culture of F_1 s.

Less than 1% of well-stained pollen grains, and no diploid seeds at all, were produced by the 1951 hybrids. Fourteen seeds were, however, harvested on three of the 40 F_1 plants, from which 6 tetraploid individuals were grown in F_2 . This second culture of F_2 s agreed with the

first in that the plants were fertile with usually 16—18 well-formed bivalents and a corresponding number of univalents at first metaphase.

Comparison of the 1949 and 1951 hybrids.

It is evident that the course of meiosis was much more regular in the 1951 hybrids than in the 1949 plants. This will be evident from an

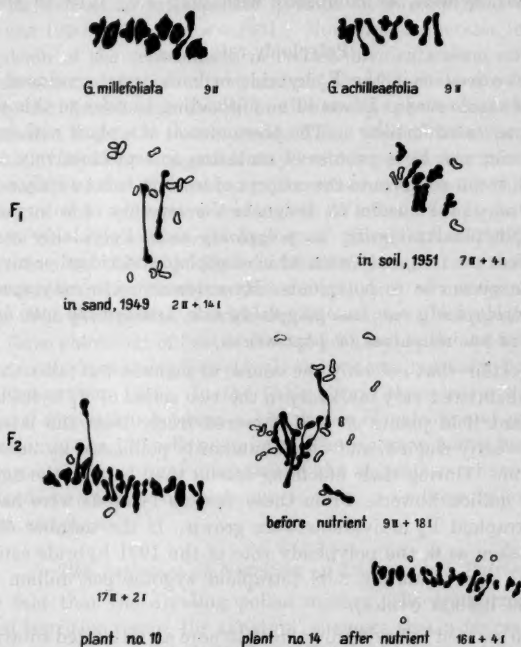


Fig. 38. Summary of chromosome pairing in *Gilia millefoliata* × *achilleaeifolia*.

examination of Table 3, where four striking differences between the two cultures are shown in the stages of diakinesis and metaphase I. For the purpose of this comparison several of the 1949 slides were reexamined in 1951 along with the 1951 slides. The 1951 statistics for the 1949 slides, as set forth in the table, therefore differ slightly from the figures given previously, there being an average of 2.9 bivalents per cell (instead of 2.6) and a range of 0—6 (instead of 0—8) for a smaller sample.

The frequency of attenuated bivalents is much less in the 1951 plants (averaging 0.3 per cell) than in the 1949 plants (1.1 per cell).

The chiasma frequency in the 1951 hybrids is higher than in the 1949 culture. The mean number of chiasmata per bivalent was 1.17 in the 1951 plants as compared with 1.06 in the 1949 ones. Since one chiasma is necessarily present in each bivalent, the comparison is properly between 0.17 and 0.06.

Finally, the average number of bivalents per cell was 6.8 ± 0.15 in the 1951 hybrids, as compared with only 2.9 ± 0.19 in the 1949 hybrids.

Polyploidy rate.

We have seen that the F_1 hybrids in both years produced a small number of viable seeds. It would be misleading to refer to this seed set of the F_1 s as "seed fertility". The phenomenon of a plant with irregular meiosis giving rise by a process of mutation to reproductively isolated progeny does not conform to the concept of fertility in its widely accepted sense. It may prove useful to designate the capacity of an organism to produce polyploid offspring as *polyploidy rate*. Polyploidy rate may be defined as the frequency with which a diploid individual or mendelian population gives rise to polyploids. By extension, one may speak also of the *allopolyploidy rate*, *autopolyploidy rate*, *heteropolyloidy rate*, *haploidy rate*, etc. of an individual or population.

It is certain that not only the course of meiosis, but also the polyploidy rate differed very markedly in the two series of F_1 hybrids. The 40 luxuriant field plants of '951 flowered freely from the latter part of April to early August, and were abundantly pollinated by bees during all this time. During their blooming season they bore in the aggregate nearly 2½ million flowers. From these flowers 14 seeds were harvested and 6 tetraploid F_2 individuals were grown. If the number of viable seeds is taken as 6, the polyploidy rate of the 1951 hybrids can be expressed as approximately 2.68 tetraploid zygotes per million flowers (or per 30 million ovules).

The 16 stunted hybrids grown in 1949 bore an estimated total number of 6720 flowers during the blooming season. Twenty seeds were harvested on these flowers, from which 16 tetraploid F_2 individuals were grown. We can thus reckon the proportion of viable tetraploid zygotes as 16 in 6720 flowers or 2381 per million flowers. The polyploidy rate of the 1949 hybrids is accordingly 888 times greater than that of the 1951 field plants.

Discussion.

The Cause of Bivalent Attenuation.

The abnormal elongation of the bivalents appears to be due to a stretching out of the major coils in the terminal chromosome regions. This stretching may result from a failure of the terminal chiasmata

to disjoin properly. Differences in chromosome homology are probably not the primary cause of the non-disjunction, inasmuch as the attenuation varies with environmental conditions, and occurs in the allotetraploid as well as in the F_1 hybrid. Furthermore, attenuated bivalents have been encountered elsewhere in presumed structural homozygotes such as elm (EHRENBERG 1949) and inbred rye (MÜNTZING and AKDIK 1948), as well as in interspecific hybrids of *Bromus* and *Gossypium* (WALTERS 1950, 1952; BROWN 1951). Nor does an increase in the force of repulsion of the centromeres in certain bivalents seem adequate, in itself, as a cause of attenuation, since if the chiasmata are functioning properly the chromosomes should be able to slip apart even if the strength of separation is greater than normal. These considerations suggest that the cause of bivalent elongation may reside, not in any structural rearrangements of the chromosomes (DARLINGTON 1937, 508ff.), or intensification of the centromere movement (WALTERS 1952), but in some failure of the chiasma mechanism itself (EHRENBERG 1949).

Evidence for this hypothesis is afforded by the fact that bivalent attenuation is rather closely associated with lack of metaphase pairing in both *Gilia millefoliata* \times *achilleaeifolia* and in *Ulmus glabra*. Thus in elm, three plants out of twelve showed both asynapsis and attenuation, whereas in the remaining individuals meiosis was normal in both particulars (EHRENBERG 1949). In the *Gilia* hybrid there was a statistically significant correlation between a low degree of pairing and presence of attenuation in the 170 cells examined. The common factor here is some disturbance in the normal operation of the chiasma mechanism, which either leads to a failure of chiasmata to form or to their failure to separate at anaphase.

The Influence of Nutrition on Chromosome Pairing.

The fact that the dividing pollen mother cells are surrounded by a special nutritive tissue, the tapetum, suggests that a favorable nutritional level is indispensable for meiosis. This purely deductive conclusion is confirmed by a number of separate observations. Excised inflorescences of *Gasteria* and excised anthers of *Tradescantia* and *Lilium*, cut off from their normal flow of nutrients and growth substances, cease to undergo meiosis (STRAUB 1938; GREGORY 1940; TAYLOR 1950). In the smut fungus, *Ustilago kollerii*, crossing over between two pairs of linked genes for color is decreased by increases in the amount of nitrogen in the culture medium, from which it may be inferred that chiasma formation in this organism is affected by nitrogen supply (DICKINSON 1931). In *Oenothera* hybrids, a direct correlation between high chlorophyll content and chromosome-ring formation suggests that high assimilation in the leaves is favorable for chromosome pairing in the anthers (ZÜRN

1939). In one series of experiments, *Oenothera* heterozygotes were grown in sand which was at first sterile but which was later enriched by the addition of nitrogen and phosphorus salts. The degree of chromosome pairing increased significantly 3 weeks after the application of the nutrients (ZÜRN 1937).

An interspecific hybrid in which chromosome homology is reduced to begin with may be particularly sensitive to radical changes in its state of nutrition. Two facts suggest that nutritional conditions exercise some control over the course of meiosis in the hybrid *Gilia millefoliata* \times *achilleaeifolia*. (1) The degree of chromosome pairing, together with various other associated phenomena, was much higher in plants grown in rich field soil than in plants grown in a small amount of pure sand. (2) Chromosome pairing and related meiotic phenomena improved in one and the same allotetraploid individual following the addition of Hoagland nutrient solution. Similar changes in the course of meiosis were not exhibited by the parental species, which are presumably well buffered against a fairly wide range of environmental conditions.

The available data are also consistent with the alternative explanation that some of the observed differences in meiosis are due to unanalyzed genetic causes. Genotypically controlled differences in meiosis have been found by numerous workers in grasses, alfalfa, spruce, *Oenothera*, *Crepis*, *Matricaria*, etc. One of the parental species used in the present study, *Gilia achilleaeifolia*, is fairly heterozygous. It is possible, therefore, that heterozygosity of this parent with respect to some unidentified gene(s) affecting the course of meiosis may be responsible both for the differences between the two F_1 cultures and for those between the sister F_2 individuals. The existence of segregation for such meiotic genes would not necessarily rule out the factor of nutrition, however, for the mutant alleles might reach their expression only at a certain threshold in the nutritional level of the plants.

What is needed at the present stage in the inquiry is an experiment in which the variable factors, both genetic and environmental, can be controlled. The cross should be repeated, using relatively homozygous individuals as parents, and parallel samples of the F_1 hybrids should be grown concurrently under different soil conditions. Inbred lines of *Gilia achilleaeifolia* are being produced currently for the purpose of carrying out such an experiment.

The Influence of Chromosome Pairing on Polyploidy Rate.

One effect of low pairing in the F_1 hybrids is the production of restitution nuclei and dyads of microspores. Unreduced eggs probably arise in the same manner. The fusion of the diploid gametes then leads to the origin of allotetraploids. Now, the starved 1949 hybrids with

their low degree of pairing were able to produce many times more tetraploid progeny than the well nourished 1951 hybrids with their higher pairing and more regular anaphase separations. This result might have been predicted from the knowledge that failure of pairing provides a major stimulus for the formation of restitution nuclei and consequently for the output of well balanced diploid gametes. Any factor, genetic or environmental, which decreases chromosome pairing in a structural hybrid may thus increase the polyploidy rate of that individual.

Several established methods of inducing polyploidy, namely by shocking an organism with abnormally hot or cold temperatures, by wounding it, or by poisoning it with colchicine, depend upon the fact that meiosis and mitosis are susceptible to environmental influences. There is some evidence, presented in the foregoing paragraphs, that the starvation of an interspecific hybrid with an initial reduction in chromosome homology can also bring about a failure of meiosis and hence an increase in the production of polyploids. If this result can be confirmed in *Gilia* and in other plant groups as well, it would place another potentially useful technique in the hands of the plant breeder making use of polyploidy. One more item would thus be added to the growing list of abnormal or unfavorable conditions which, by interfering with nuclear division, increase the polyploidy rate of plants in the experimental garden and presumably also in nature.

Summary.

Gilia millefoliata and *G. achilleaeifolia*, two annual diploid ($n = 9$) species of *Polemoniaceae*, crossed readily in certain combinations but not in others. The F_1 hybrids were vigorous but sterile. They gave rise, apparently by the union of unreduced gametes, to an F_2 generation of tetraploids, which were mostly fertile.

Chromosome pairing in the hybrids varied markedly according to the state of nutrition of the plants. The F_1 hybrids formed fewer clear diakinesis figures, fewer bivalents, fewer chiasmata per bivalent, and more attenuated or stretched bivalents when grown in 2" pots of sand than when grown in rich soil (Table 3). A pot-bound allotetraploid individual derived from this hybrid showed the same meiotic irregularities as the starved F_1 s until irrigated with a solution of mineral nutrients, after which its chromosomes paired regularly in bivalents (Table 2, Fig. 38).

The capacity of the F_1 hybrids to produce polyploids also differed strikingly in the two cultures. The rate of polyploidy of the stunted sand-grown hybrids was 2381 viable tetraploid zygotes per million flowers, while the corresponding figure for the luxuriant field hybrids was only 2.7 per million flowers.

For the production of polyploid progeny by diploid parents—a process which should be clearly distinguished from normal fertility—the term *polyploidy rate* is proposed. It is suggested that starvation of a structural hybrid may sometimes increase its polyploidy rate by reducing chromosome pairing to the point where restitution nuclei and hence unreduced gametes can be formed.

Acknowledgements.

A portion of the work reported herein was accomplished with the aid of a Fellowship of the National Research Council (U.S.A.). The research was begun at the University of California in Berkeley, continued for over a year at the Carnegie Institution of Washington, Stanford, California, and since 1950 has been carried on at the Rancho Santa Ana Botanic Garden. The cross-pollinations were made by Mrs. ALVA GRANT. An early draft of the manuscript was reviewed by Drs. JENS CLAUSEN and PAUL GRUN of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, and a later draft by Dr. G. LEDYARD STEBBINS of the University of California. A special problem was clarified in discussions with Dr. MARTA SHERMAN WALTERS of the University of California. The author wishes to acknowledge his appreciation for the help and suggestions received from these colleagues, as well as for the support received from the aforementioned institutions.

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